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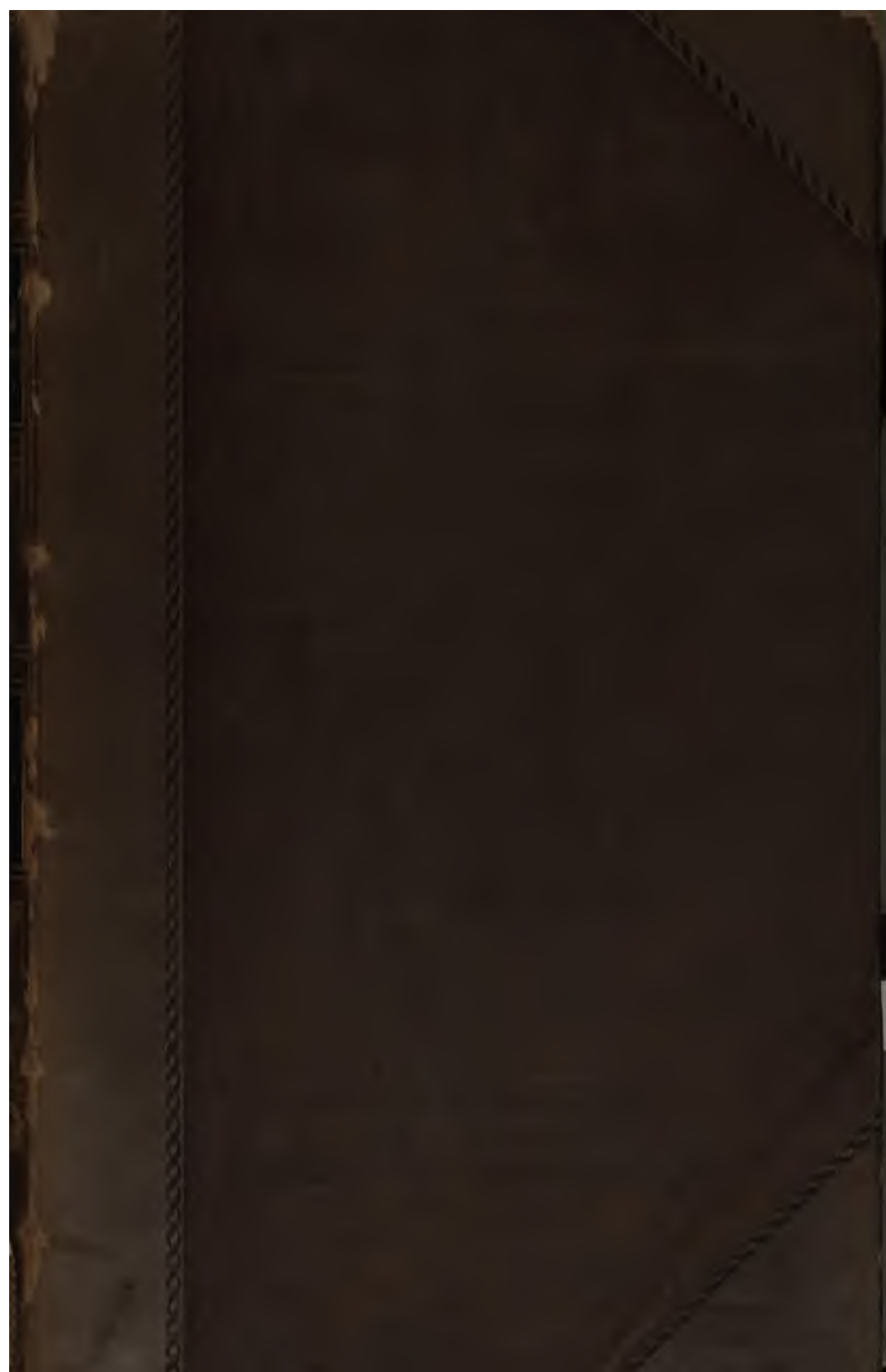
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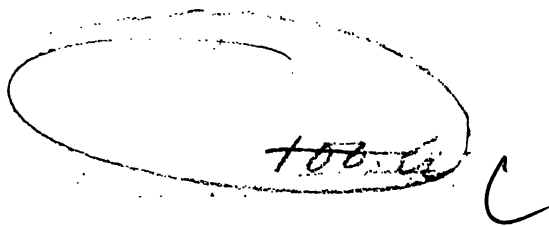




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GENERAL VIEW  
OF THE  
AGRICULTURE  
OF  
THE ISLE OF MAN.

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**GENERAL VIEW**  
**OF THE**  
**AGRICULTURE**  
**OF**  
**THE ISLE OF MAN.**  
**WITH OBSERVATIONS ON THE**  
**MEANS OF ITS IMPROVEMENT.**

---

**DRAWN UP FOR THE CONSIDERATION OF**  
**THE BOARD OF AGRICULTURE**  
**AND INTERNAL IMPROVEMENT.**

---

**BY THOMAS QUAYLE, ESQ.**

**LONDON:**

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## ADVERTISEMENT.

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THE desire that has been generally expressed, to have the AGRICULTURAL SURVEYS of the KINGDOM reprinted, with the additional Communications which have been received since the ORIGINAL REPORTS were circulated, has induced the BOARD OF AGRICULTURE to come to a resolution to reprint such as appear on the whole fit for publication.

It is proper at the same time to add, that the Board does not consider itself responsible for every statement contained in the Reports thus reprinted, and that it will thankfully acknowledge any additional information which may still be communicated.

---

N. B. *Letters to the Board, may be addressed to the Rt. Hon. Sir JOHN SINCLAIR, Bart. the President, No. 32, Sackville-street, Piccadilly, London.*



## PREFACE.

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**T**HE following Report was prepared from notes collected during a residence in the Isle of Man, from the beginning of June to the end of September, 1811. When presenting it to the Board, the Reporter would hold himself guilty of ingratitude, were he not to express his obligation to every class of his countrymen for their ready assistance on every occasion where he thought it necessary to seek information. In particular, he considers himself indebted to J. F. Crellin, Esq. one of the Deemsters, or common-law judges ; to T. Stowell, Esq. the Clerk of the Rolls ; to the Rev. J. Bridson, Rector of Kirk-Bride ; to Major Taubman ; P. Moore, R. Farrant, T. Gawne, Edward Gawne, and J. Wade, Esqrs. ; to Lieut. Wynne, R. M. to Mr. Hughes, Mr. B. Quayle, the former reporter to the Board ; to Messrs. W. Kelly, Sinclair, A. Minto, and Cannel : but most of all, he has to express his gratitude to Col. Taubman and A. Dunlop, Esq. without whose valuable aid, on many

occasions, the imperfections with which this work may be chargeable, would have been still more numerous.

The Custom-house returns, previous to the year 1791, are extracted from materials collected by Commissioners sent to the Island by Lord Melville (then Mr. Dundas), as Secretary of State. On an application to W. Scott, Esq. the Receiver-general of the insular Customs, for the more recent information, he obligingly furnished the greater portion of the subsequent returns from which the Appendix is compiled.

As it fortunately happened that the visit which the much respected President of the insular Agricultural Society, J. C. Curwen, Esq. annually pays them, took place during the Reporter's residence, and gave occasion to a very numerous meeting of its members, an opportunity offered of collecting information, in particular as to the live stock, which much facilitated all subsequent enquiries. On many heads, the Reporter had also the advantage of Mr. Curwen's directions and advice.

In the Mineralogical and Botanical departments, the Reporter sought elsewhere the assistance, which the island itself did not afford, of a well informed companion in his researches; but was unfortunately and repeatedly disappointed in receiving that assistance which

he so much wished and needed. On the former head, he has in some respects benefited by the recent publication of his tour by Mr. Woods, the best as well as the latest traveller who has laid before the public any account of this Island. As a survey of it within these few months has been made by Dr. Berger, under the auspices of the Geological Society, and the specimens collected have already been received, the defects of the present Report, regarding that particular, are the less to be regretted.





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### ERRATA.

Page 45, last line, *dele* them.

87, 10th line, *for* owner, *read* owners.

112, notes, 10th line, *for* Loshhyn, *read* Loshtyn.

AGRICULTURAL SURVEY  
OF  
THE ISLE OF MAN.

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CHAP. I.

GEOGRAPHICAL STATE AND CIRCUMSTANCES.

---

SECTION I.—SITUATION AND EXTENT.

THE Isle of Man lies in the midway course between Great Britain and Ireland, but most nearly approaching, at its north-east extremity, to the Scottish coast. From the Burrow Head, in Galloway, to the nearest point in the Isle of Man, the distance is about six leagues. The centre of the island is in  $54^{\circ} 46'$  north lat. Its length from N. E. to S. W.  $13\frac{1}{2}$  miles; but in width, in the widest part, it falls short of 12 miles, narrowing considerably at the two extremities.

On its west coast is situate a small island, near the town of Peel, attached to the main by a causeway, and containing the ruins of an ancient castle, and of the cathedral. Another island lies on the east coast, near the southern extremity; and at the extreme S. W. are two other islands; one of them of several hundred acres extent. Each of these islands is fenced round by a rocky cliff: the first is the property of the Crown, the others of individuals.

ISLE OF MAN.

B



The number of statute-aeres in the Isle of Man and its appendages, amounts to about 180,000 ; but as the island never yet has been surveyed, and as its outline is indented by bays and by the mouths of several small streams issuing to sea, its dimensions cannot at present be stated with any approach to precision.

---

#### SECTION II.—DIVISIONS.

FOR civil purposes the island is divided into six districts, called sheadings. Each has its officer, named a coroner, annually chosen, and exercising the functions of a sheriff. For ecclesiastical purposes, the division is into seventeen parishes: of these, three are rectories, and fourteen vicarages.

---

#### SECTION III.—CLIMATE.

THE narrow form of the island, and the prevalence of westerly winds, constantly wafting clouds from the Atlantic, render the climate temperate, indeed, but humid. Frosts are not severe; snow rarely falls of any depth, or remains long: but fogs and rain are frequent. In April the wind varies to the eastward, impeding the progress of spring, by nipping the buds and early shoots which the moisture had previously encouraged. These winds sometimes continue six or seven weeks, with little variation, till interrupted again by showers. After these, vegetation takes a new spring, and advances with rapidity.

No observations have been made with the rain-gauge; nor have any been preserved for any considerable length of time, on the barometer or thermometer, by a resident in the island.

The difference of temperature between day and night is observable: even after a warm day, the nights seem cold, and in calm weather the dews are heavy. Although the winter is more mild, and particularly at its commencement, than on the eastern coast of England, yet to the feelings, the climate is here more chilling and ungenial. Humidity and cold acting together on the human skin, draw off the caloric more rapidly than is the effect of dry frosty winds, even at times when the barometer would indicate a degree of cold more piercing. The climate is however healthy, and longevity frequent: epidemics are rare; the ague unknown.

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#### SECTION IV.—COAST, SOIL, AND SURFACE.

To the voyager arriving in almost any direction, the general aspect of the island is bold and mountainous; yet it contains within its limits several plains of considerable extent and fertility.

At the extreme northern part of the island, appears a sandy flat beach, covered towards full sea-mark by a bed of gravel and rounded pebbles. Proceeding coast-wise, in a southerly direction, the frontier to the sea, on the eastern side, impending over the beach, is a sand and clay cliff, from sixty to eighty feet high, which continues nearly to the town of Ramsey. The high tides, during the winter months, undermining this cliff, large fragments of it occasionally fall down, and are washed to sea. The annual encroachments of the ocean are here the more to be regretted, as the quality of the land thus irrecoverably lost is among the best in the island; and no mode of preventing the evil appears to have been ever in contemplation. Southward of Ramsey,

about a mile, the coast begins to be guarded by an impregnable stone cliff, which continues, with little intermission, for about fifteen miles, till it reaches a semi-circular sandy bay, at the southern extremity of which is built Douglas, the most considerable town and seaport in the island. The stone cliff, and deep water, recommence southward of the town; and, with the intervention of a few other sandy bays and creeks, the cliff continues to give protection to the coast, occasionally towering to an enormous height, both at the eastern and western sides, till about three miles northward of the port of Peel. It there meets a sandy and clay cliff, similar to that on the north-eastern coast, and receiving in several parts, from the impression of the tides, equal or greater injury. The cliff continues till it again meets the flat sand-beach near the north-western extremity.

Small as is the extent of the island, it comprehends almost every variety of soil. The attempt to define on a map the boundaries of each, would be attended with difficulty; and as they shift within short spaces, it would be subject to much error. A short and imperfect sketch will be attempted of the leading changes. A fringe of white sand forms the northern and north-western extremity. This ground is evidently alluvial, formed, perhaps, by the collision of the two tides, which meet at this point. Clay and marl are found underneath, but as the surface is in part composed of gravel, and has but scanty herbage, as it is without fence or tree, and swept by every wintry storm, no attempt has ever been made towards cultivating it; nor indeed is the property in it well ascertained. At present a few sheep run through the fern and stunted furze, which in the inland part are its principal productions. Proceeding southward and eastward, the quality of the soil soon improves. The whole northern division of the Island

forms an irregular quadrangular vale of about forty-six square miles, bounded on the east, north, and west by the ocean ; on the south by a chain of mountains, which run in a direction nearly east and west, leaving an interval, at their western termination, between their base and the sea. The plain between the mountain and the sea is again intersected by sand-hills, all capable of cultivation, and containing in their bosom the seeds of fertility. The surface of this plain is in parts a sandy loam ; in its south-west angle it approaches to pure sand ; but in every part, and generally near the surface, it contains abundant beds of marl of excellent quality. In a line nearly parallel to the mountain runs, from west to east, the largest stream on the island, on which the effect of spring tides is perceptible at the distance of two miles from the sea. The vale, through which this stream pursues its course, is in part bottomed with peat, approaching within two feet of the surface, and incumbent on clay ; in part, a good loam appears : in other part it is sandy, with marl rising near the surface, and in part clay. The narrow slip of land running between this river and the mountain is, throughout, of superior quality ; and altogether, this vale would in any country be reckoned among those most favoured by nature.

The mountains forming the boundary of this vale, rising abruptly, present to the north a continuous face, except where pierced by three or four glens, which close as they rise into the interior. There are two stages of mountains immediately contiguous, of which the southward is much the most elevated, and alone produces peat. Where the surface of the mountain has not been laid bare by the hand of man in a few quarries, or deformed by the effect of water impeded in its course downward, it is covered with herbage, valuable as sheep pasture. Though at present but a few trees

grow in its sheltered glens, yet it appears in general fit for planting. Here the mountainous tract commencing, occupies the central part of the island. The general structure is argillaceous schistus, in steep and irregular strata, frequent quarries breaking out to day. This is interspersed with veins and blocks of quartz; sometimes, but less frequently, of granite. In some parts the reduced fragments of schistus appear to form nearly the whole of the soil. Peat abounds. The higher point of the interior ridge is called *Snæfell*; attaining the height of 672 yards above the level of the sea. It is verdant to the summit, and bears the showy tufts of cotton grass; *Eriophorum vaginatum*, and *Eriophorum polystachion*. If the weather be clear, the adjacent coasts of Scotland, England, Wales and Ireland, are discernible by the naked eye at the same time, from this mountain. Another, impending over the town of Ramsey, called *North Barool*, reaches the same height within thirty or forty feet.\* Each of these is formed of argillaceous slate, covering mica slate. Nearly in the centre of the island, the mountains are separated by a narrow valley, which pierces in an east and west direction from sea to sea. To the eastward it widens into a plain, through which a small river runs, formed by the

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\* The prospect from this hill seems to have excited a whimsical reflection in the mind of a former proprietor of this seignory (James, Earl of Derby, in the middle of the 17th century) after observing to his son, that there is no doubt but that by due management of the insular trade he may grow rich, he goes on to say, "When I go to the Mount called Barool, and turning me round see England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales, "I think shame, so fruitlessly to see so many kingdoms at once, "which no place I think in any nation that we know of under "heaven can afford such a prospect of, and to have such little profit "by them." PECK'S DESID. CURIOSA.

junction of two streams above the town of Douglas. The land surrounding this town, though generally inferior in fertility to the northern district, is the most carefully cultivated, and most productive part of the island. To the west also, this valley expands, and gives exit to another small stream collecting the water which falls on the western side. On this stream are situate the town and port of Peel, the most convenient for intercourse with Ireland and the western coast of Scotland. This vale contains an epitome of all soils; on the north it is sand, containing particles of freestone, and of a reddish colour; towards the mountain it is gravel and stone brash; in other parts, clay. Pits of good marl are to be found, but they lie deep, and are little used. On the low grounds, through which the rivulet runs, are found patches of peat-moss. From Peel to Castletown, the south-west coast becomes a lofty precipice to the sea. The mountains which range inland with this, approach within four miles of Castletown, the metropolis, though not the largest town in the island. The termination of the ridge towards the plain, is called *South Barrow*: on its surface are found numerous blocks of granite, containing mica, reddish feld-spar, and grey quartz. Fragments of mica-slate also appear; but the argillaceous is most frequent. The summit of this mountain attains the height of 514 yards from the sea, and affords a view nearly as extensive as that from *Snafell*, in the northern division of the island. From the foot of this mountain to the sea, extends a fertile vale, in part seated on limestone lying in regular and nearly horizontal strata. This vale is studded with eminences, and appears altogether well adapted to the turnip husbandry. In general, the soil is a warm friable loam; though on the eastern side is found a stiff clay: in other parts, sand prevails.

In various parts of the island, are found beneath the surface, bands of an indurated substance of a dusky colour, here called black-rock, or black-sole, formed of rounded gravel and sand, closely cohering together, apparently by the effect of some mineral impregnation. It often rises within six inches of the surface, and is of irregular depth, from six inches to fifteen inches and upwards, incumbent generally on gravel, which it often tinges of a dirty yellow or rust colour. The surface water is repelled by this substance, and no root can enter it.

In other places, rise near the surface beds of a hungry white clay, of extraordinary tenacity ; resisting the impression of the tool, and impervious to water, or to the root of vegetables. The depth of this bed of clay, where pierced, has not been found to exceed eighteen inches. Where this clay, or the black-rock is found, the effects on vegetation are most injurious.

The island to the south-west, called the Calf of Man, rises in one point to a considerable elevation above the sea, and is environed by huge masses of rock. On these, in the season, sea-birds incubate in prodigious numbers. The strata of this island seem to consist altogether of bluish grey argillaceous schistus, with veins of quartz : its soil is light. A few head of deer were formerly introduced into this island, but were drowned in attempting to escape. It has been applied principally to sheep pasture, or as a rabbit warren, but at present part is under the plough.

A sea-bird, here called a puffin, formerly hatched its young in the rabbit-burrows. When fully fledged, these were taken from the nests by means of an iron instrument ; being extremely fat and of a peculiar flavour, they were held in great esteem by some persons, as a delicacy. The rats escaping from a vessel which

happened to be wrecked on the coast, have exterminated these birds; of which not an individual is now bred in the island.

---

#### SECTION V.—MINERALS AND QUARRIES.

On a promontory of the south-western coast called *Breda*, traces remain of mining operations carried on in ancient days to a considerable extent. One level, about four feet wide, and between four and five feet high, opens just above high-water-mark into the north-west front of the mountain, and reaches about 200 yards. By means of a shaft sunk from a point of the rock, and inclining inwards about twelve yards from the perpendicular of the entrance into the level, and from a few other sunaps or shafts, sunk below the level, a considerable quantity of ore appears to have been obtained. The level was wrought through the vein, which was very irregular: in some parts 40 feet high by 6 feet broad; in intervening spaces little or no ore appeared. Its quality seems to have been but indifferent. Some wedges of a description in use before the introduction of gunpowder into mining, called *feather-wedges*, have been found in the mine; and the appearance of the work bespeaks remote antiquity; history and even tradition are silent by whom, and at what period, these operations were commenced.

In the course of the 17th century the noble family of Stanley, to whom the seignory then belonged, appear to have sought for copper in the same neighbourhood. Traces of their labours remain. The ore discovered seems not to have been abundant, but rich in quality, producing, as it is said, six pennyweights of copper,



from an ounce of ore. In some instances, the water appears tainted with cupreous impregnations; but the search after this useful mineral seems to have had no renewal. Some attempts at lead ore, as well near the same spot, as in other parts of the island, on its western side, have been made at various periods, and at one time wore a promising appearance. The Bishop of Llandaff\* states the produce in silver on some Manks ore to have amounted to 20 oz. in a ton of lead. By some of the workmen it is asserted that the quantity of silver has occasionally amounted to 35 oz. in the ton.

Since the publication of his Lordship's valuable researches, attempts to raise lead ore have been made on the eastern coast of the island, near a village called *Luxy*: the specimens were both of compact and brittle galena; the former rich in silver, and well worth cupellation. It was found both in veins and nodules; some of them very large, accompanied by a few trifling specimens of copper ore, and more abundant of zinc, in the state both of carbonate and sulphuret, with a gangue of crystallized quartz and sulphat of barytes.

The subscription, by means of which this work was carried on, was too slender in amount, and the ignorance, as it is said, of the workmen employed, too great to afford much prospect of success.

Northward of this spot, and in other districts of the island, iron-stone is found, but no attempt at smelting it has been made.

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\* There are several smelting houses at Holywell in Flintshire, where silver is extracted from lead; they usually work off three ton of lead at one operation: the quantity of silver is variable, according to the richness of the lead. A few years ago, they were refining lead from an ore found in the Isle of Man, and it gave them about 60 ounces at every operation, or 20 ounces in a ton of lead.—*Watson's Chemical Essays*, v. iii, p. 328. 7th ed.

Of coal, there is little indication ; it has been sought for, but not perhaps in the most likely spot.

Half a mile north-east of Peel, on the sea coast, a quarry of sand-stone rises : its colour is a dull brown red ; the surface stone is hard, and breaks into lamina of considerable breadth and length, from three to six inches thick. This stone contains fragments of quartz, and is charged with iron : if more deeply wrought, it might perhaps prove more friable. Many centuries ago, the quarry has evidently been wrought to the margin of the sea ; but valuable as the stone appears, it is at present neglected.

At the same distance, south-west of the town, is situated, also on the shore, a quarry of slate. Its situation is on the side of a precipice, with no road of safe access, or convenient means of shipping the slate raised. The resources of the poor people employed in raising and fashioning the slate, do not enable them to overcome these difficulties ; and this quarry also is in a state of neglect. Three miles southward, another slate quarry is occasionally wrought on the sea shore. Its produce is equally good ; but the same obstacles arising from the poverty of the few persons employed in quarrying, have hitherto prevented the extension of this work, though much more easy of access. In the mountain, other slate quarries are wrought, all of them for domestic consumption, which they are insufficient to supply ; many cargoes being imported from Wales annually.

The south-eastern and southern extremity of the island rests on a solid limestone rock, extending into the country above three miles, and forming a sea coast of about four miles. A vein of coarse black marble, of a few hundred yards in length, intersects it near high-water-mark, at its south-western extremity. The

latter stone is not convertible into lime, or capable of receiving a high polish : it is principally employed in tomb-stones. The steps and part of the flagging to St. Paul's is from this quarry. On the surface of this vein appears a layer of a deep brown, hard and ponderous stone, which does not burn, and is used in lining the lime-kilns. The quarry also contains a small greyish marble vein, which bears a good polish, but it is not wrought at present.

The limestone dips generally in a northern direction, but sometimes to the south-west, and west. The extreme points of the quarry, as far as has yet been ascertained, are about four miles distant. The depth of soil covering the rock, varies from six inches to nine feet ; the depth of the rock itself is as yet unexplored. Two or three layers of limestone on the surface, of the depth of from one to four feet each, are of inferior quality ; the remaining bed is all of equal value to convert into lime, and has not been found to improve as it deepens. Impressions of sea shells are frequently observable.

Three considerable lime works are carried on for the supply of the public ; one situate on the margin of the sea at a mile south-west from Castletown ; another a mile east from that town, near a port called Derby Haven : and others, two miles north in the interior. An account is subjoined of the quantities sold at the two latter works during the three last years.\* At each

\* Quantity of lime sold from the three kilns at Derby Haven, between the years 1807 and 1810 inclusive.

Year	Barrels	Bushels
1807	14351	86106
1808	15008	90048
1809	15151	90906
1810	13145	78870
Total sold in four years	57655	345930
Quantity of Lime sold in 1809 and 1810 from two kilns at		

place are three kilns: the largest is situated in the interior. It is a perpetual or draw kiln, 24 feet deep, 8 feet wide, containing four eyes, each sixteen inches wide in the run of the shovel, eighteen inches high, and sixteen feet long. After being heated about a week, it burns about 540 bushel each day; and delivers its lime at the kiln, at two shillings and two-pence a barrel, each containing six Winchester bushel.

From the latter end of March to the beginning of July, quarriers are also constantly employed in raising limestone from quarries near the sea, which is conveyed in boats of from 15 to 30 ton burden, for burning in other parts of the island. The quantity of limestone exported to England is at present very inconsiderable; of that carried coastwise there are no means of ascertaining the quantity; it is raised wholly by day-work; the quarriers receiving wages from 2s. 6d. to 3s. a day.

When burnt into lime, the stone is stated to lose about three fifths in weight.

A regular quarry of tough argillaceous slate is found at a place called *Spanish Head*, four miles south-west from Castletown. The stone is raised in blocks of from six to ten feet long, nine inches to 15 broad, and

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Slaughfield;† and from the three kilns, up to the 3rd of August 1811, there having been a new kiln set to work in this season.

Year	Barrels	Bushels
1809	5846	35076
1810	12491	74946
1811	9000	54000
Total sold in three years.	27337	164022

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† As well at Slaughfield as at Derby Haven, one of the three kilns considerably exceeds in size the other two. The latter are all nearly of the same size.

from four inches to eight inches deep. These are employed for lintels to doors and windows, for gate posts, and other purposes to which wood is applied in other countries.

The slate raised at another quarry in the interior is found to answer the purpose of whetstones.

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#### SECTION VI.—STREAMS AND SPRINGS.

THE summits of the central mountains, intercepting the fleets of vapor in their transit, furnish a perennial supply of rills and streams. For all the purposes of agriculture, water of an excellent quality is no where deficient; though in uncommonly dry summers, perhaps for a few weeks, some mills may suffer inconvenience. In some part of the sandy plain in the northern division of the island, springs are not abundant: but no pains have yet been taken to pierce in search of water to a sufficient depth. In the southern low lands also, where the limestone rock forms the substratum, springs of soft water are not found. No injurious consequences to the health, or domestic convenience of the inhabitants, have been found to result.

There are no lakes or ponds of any extent in the island.

## CHAP. II.

## STATE OF PROPERTY.

## SECTION I.—ESTATES, AND THEIR MANAGEMENT.

THE subdivision of property amongst the ancient inhabitants appears to have been, in general, minute, as if effected by an agrarian law. Care seems to have been taken in many instances that each farm should possess a portion of the turbary, of mountain pasture, of the arable, and of meadow. Several of these original partitions still subsist, forming farms, long, narrow, and inconvenient for the modern systems of tillage. In this distribution, however, they do not seem in every instance to have aimed at complete equality. Several of these holdings (at least estates bearing the same name, and going back as far as record and tradition reach, in possession of one family), are of extent ten and twenty fold greater than others contiguous. But even at this day few of the Manks gentry, perhaps not more than six or seven, possess five hundred acres of land within a ring-fence. Some ancient estates of that extent, or greater, have perhaps been cut up and divided, and the families extinguished; but there are on the other hand, estates at present exceeding that quantity, in consequence of having received additions by contiguous purchases. There are indeed several persons who are owners of a greater number of acres, but not in immediate contiguity. There is but one gentleman whose

Manks rent-roll exceeds three thousand pounds; and not more than three or four others, the rent of whose landed estates, in their present state of culture, exceeds one thousand pounds per annum.

In the management of their estates there are no peculiar circumstances. The profession of a Land Surveyor is unknown. No objection is made to granting leases: provided the sum offered as rent be sufficiently great, the covenants appear to be little attended to. This subject will be resumed under another head.

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#### SECTION II.—TENURES.

THE general tenure, under which the lands are held, is customary freehold, descendible from ancestor to heir, according to the insular laws, which differ but in a few subordinate particulars from those of England. The right by primogeniture extends to females as well as males: lands are not devisable except by the first acquirer: the interest of a widow or widower, being the first wife or husband of a person deceased, is a life estate in one half of the lands which have descended hereditarily to that person, and is forfeited by a second marriage. A second husband or second wife is entitled but to a life-interest in one quarter, unless there be no children by the former marriage, in which case they have half. But of the lands purchased by the husband, the wife surviving him is entitled to an absolute moiety. The insular laws do not seem to authorize leases extending beyond 21 years. Previous to the years 1777, leases expired with the life of the grantor. By a statute of that year, proprietors of lands are empowered "to grant leases for any term not exceeding

"21 years in possession, at the highest and most improved rent which can be obtained." In fact, leases for longer terms are sometimes granted; and have not yet been questioned.

The Norwegian Conquerors of this island and of the Hebrides, in the ninth and tenth centuries, evidently found a people less advanced in civilization than themselves. Of these islands they formed a little maritime monarchy: the Northern system of jurisprudence, in particular the trial by jury (which does not seem to have been a Celtic institution), was of their introduction; and during their sway the Manks tenures were probably fixed.\* After the acquisition to the Crown of England of this island, its seignory was granted successively to several families, but rested longest with that of Stanley. The Earl of Derby, who was beheaded during the civil commotions in the 17th century, attempted to innovate on these tenures, and convert them into tenancies for life, or at his will. In this attempt one or two of his successors followed his example. In consequence, as tradition says, of the treachery of several leading families of the islanders, the heads of which, from private inducements, led the way in surrendering their ancient "Tenure by the Straw," and accepting leases;

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\* "In Iceland (which was also a Norwegian conquest or colony), there are three different kinds of tenure, 1st, King's-Land: and, Church-Land. 3rd, Freehold. *King's-Land* is given by the *Land fogued* (or Treasurer) to whomsoever he pleases: The family who occupy it, possess it as long as they have an heir, and can pay the rent, which is very small, and a tax of one rixdollar per annum. *Church-Land* is given away by the Bishop and Amptman, and held in the same manner. *Freehold* is as in all other countries, each estate paying one rixdollar per annum to the king, in lieu of land-tax."—*Sir Joseph Banks's MS. Journal, quoted in Hooper's Tour in Iceland. London, 1811.*



these attempts were not wholly unsuccessful. Still the islanders resisted: after sixty years' struggle, in 1704, a compromise was effected. The islanders agreed to double the annual quit-rents formerly paid to the Lord, and to give a fixed fine on their land changing hands in consequence of death or alienation. This fine was of novel introduction. Beyond the confirmation of their ancient tenures the Lord conceded nothing. To him therefore the compromise seems to have been most beneficial. Doubts, however, appear to have been raised at a period much more recent, of the validity of this compromise, and of the laws by which it was repeatedly confirmed. The islanders were at the time thrown into great alarm, which at present appears to have completely subsided. They remark that not one of the families which formerly assisted the Lord in his attempts to violate their tenures, has endured, or retains an acre of land in the island. This, it seems, happened to have been predicted in one of their songs circulating at the time. It is remarked too, that the same song predicts that a particular estate, which was the property of a gentleman put to death in the island, after the Restoration, on account of his political conduct, shall return into his name and family. This prediction also has been recently and literally fulfilled.

Church-lands, properly so called, do not exist in the island. Some land held of the Bishop of Man's Barony, rendering a heriot of an ox, (by custom, commuted for forty shillings,) to each new bishop, and annual rents, but no fine. The Crown is also entitled to a small Barony, which is understood to be on lease. As there are no lands attached to this Barony, and as it did not participate in the fines and double rents imposed in 1704, its profit is inconsiderable.

## CHAP. III.

## BUILDINGS.

## SECTION I.—HOUSES OF PROPRIETORS.

STONE being in plenty in almost every quarter of the island, and good slate within reach, the houses of the gentry are exclusively constructed of these materials : generally rough-cast and white-washed. With the exception of one house recently erected by his Grace the Duke of Atholl, close to the town of Douglas, there is no large or very elegant mansion in the island, nor is it likely that any such should in future arise. The residence ought to be in proportion to the wants and the expenditure of its owner : and it is not within probability that a family whose style of living requires a numerous establishment or a magnificent structure, should continue to make this secluded spot their abode. Some few of the houses contain rooms, well pitched, and of handsome dimensions ; but the country residences are usually below par. Brick houses are very infrequent : none are constructed of timber, lathe, and plastered, nor are tiles in use. In very exposed situations the walls are often faced from the roof to the ground with slate. In this humid climate, this mode may perhaps be useful to exclude damps ; but the workmanship, in general, is not neatly finished : the mortar used in this vertical slating is not tinged, as it ought to be, of the colour of the slate itself ; and, on the whole, the effect to the eye is displeasing.

## SECTION II.—FARM HOUSES AND OFFICES.

AGRICULTURE is here yet a recent art ; the attention it receives from the numerous yeomanry, among whom the soil is principally divided, is still deficient. The materials of which their residences and farm-buildings are constructed are solid, and the workmanship substantial. But their own dwellings contain rooms generally low and ill ventilated ; the admission of light is imperfect, and the internal distribution of space inconvenient, compared with the dwellings of persons in the same class of life in longer cultivated countries. Farm offices are still worse constructed and arranged ; the stabling is cramped ; their carts stand abroad unsheltered. The system of soiling being unknown or unpractised, no regular yards for cattle are constructed ; and consequently the muck is ill preserved. The dairies are usually within the house ; sufficient attention to cleanliness not being paid, the milk suffers in quality, and its odour pervades the dwelling.

The dearth of timber, and the great expense of building with stone and lime, in some degree impede the removal of these evils. Several of the gentry have, however, erected on their farms excellent quadrangles of offices, constructed of stone and slated, sheltering in their centre their live stock.

The benefit received by their farms and their cattle from these improvements is so striking, that in time these must have imitations, perhaps improvements. The threshing-floors were formerly too often placed on an upper story. Since the general introduction of threshing-machines, the evils of this injudicious arrangement will be avoided.

## SECTION III.—REPAIRS.

THE solid materials of which farming offices are constructed, and the recency of their erection, preclude much observation on this head. Repairs are usually incumbent on the tenant.

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## SECTION IV.—PRICES OF BUILDING, MATERIALS, AND ARTIZANS' LABOUR.

WITHIN a few years, the wages of artizans have received a material increase. Masons, carpenters, and quarriers require from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* per day. Dry rough-walling costs about 1*s.* per yard. House-walling, 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* The price of materials depends on the vicinity of the quarry; carriage and labour being the only expense. By the insular laws, every person standing in need of lime-stone, or building-stone, may enter on his neighbour's land, and dig and carry away what is requisite for his own use, paying the occupier a reasonable satisfaction, which appears to be interpreted merely surface-damage. The labourers employed receive from 1*s.* 8*d.* to 3*s.* per day in the towns; in the country from 1*s.* 4*d.* to 2*s.* sometimes with an allowance of beer.

The emission of paper-money, which in this island descends to shillings, and even lower, and the general displacing of coin from the circulation, have disturbed the present prices paid for labour so considerably, that the registering them can be of little other use than as furnishing data for comparison.

## SECTION V.—COTTAGES.

THE dwellings of the farmers and peasantry in this island are not commonly arranged in villages, but scattered over the area of the country. On viewing the hovel in which a Manks peasant shelters himself, the first impression on the mind of a stranger arriving from a more opulent country must be, that this is the abode of misery. The walls are about seven feet high, constructed of sods of earth : at each side the door, appears a square hole, containing a leaded window. Chimney there is none, but a perforation of the roof, a little elevated at one end, emits great part of the smoke from the fire underneath. The timber forming the roof is slender, coarse, and crooked. It is thatched with straw, crossed chequerwise, at intervals of twelve or eighteen inches, by ropes of the same material, secured either by being tied to the wall by means of coarse slates fixed and projecting, or by stones hanging from the ends of the ropes.

From that end of the roof whence the smoke issues, to the other end, the roof gently declines in height. If the means of its inhabitant enable him to keep a cow, a continuation of the roof covers another hovel of similar materials, accommodating this valuable inmate. On entering that end which is destined to the lord of the creation, the appearance of wretchedness unfortunately continues. The floor is hardened clay : the embers burn on a stone placed on a hearth, without range or chimney ; the turf-smoke, wandering at random, darkens every article of furniture, till it finds exit at the aperture in the roof, or elsewhere. A partition sepa-

rates the cottage into two rooms : over the chamber-end is sometimes a loft, to which the ascent is by a ladder from the keeping-room. The aspect of the inhabitants is in unison with their abode. The mother and children are bare legged and bare footed ; their dark-coloured woollen garments squalid and unseemly.

Yet perhaps this wretchedness is but in externals. This homely abode is warm and evidently not unhealthy. Its inhabitant has stored within its walls his winter's food ; he is therefore more free from heart-ache than the peasant of other regions more favoured by nature and by climate ; living indeed in a neater habitation, but paying treble the rent ; on more costly food, but at the mercy of the baker or the miller.

In the northern district, where quarries of stone are less accessible, and lime more distant, the cottages continue to be built in the primitive manner. In the southern, where building materials are comparatively more plentiful, stone and lime are used in the new cottages, more frequently. The ancient mode of thatching and roping is still general. Every second year, the thatch requires to be thickened, and the chequer-work straw netting to be renewed.

An earth cottage may be completed from the ground for about twelve or fifteen pounds. The rent is about a guinea, usually paid by the labour of its inhabitant and his family to the owner. The increase of threshing machines, rendering the straw unfit for thatching will in time necessitate the use of slates for roofing. In the end, this material will be found more economical. The durable roofs, constructed of heath, which appear to be in use in the north-west highlands, have been rarely used in this island.

**SECTION VI.—BRIDGES.**

THE streams of this island being, of course, diminutive, it is not necessary on this head to say any thing apart from what will come under consideration with the high roads.

## CHAP. IV.

### MODE OF OCCUPATION.

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#### SECTION I.—SIZE OF FARMS.

THE original partition of property before alluded to in a considerable degree still exists. The largest portion of cultivated land is possessed by yeomen, farming from ten to one hundred and fifty acres, their own property. In the immediate vicinity of the towns, the occupations are generally more minute, and in the hands of residents in those towns, holding lands for their domestic convenience. In the mountainous districts, the allotment of poor pasture to each farm may occasion an excess beyond the greatest quantity above stated: but it is probable that there are not in the whole island more than sixty farms consisting of two hundred acres or above, each occupied by one person.

However conducive to happiness, or to the increase of people, such a partition of land may be deemed, at least in this instance, it does not produce good farmers. With models of improvement before their eyes, with opportunities of bettering their stock, this class of men slowly deviates from ancient practices. The principal obstacle to their progress, is undoubtedly their attention being diverted to the mischievous herring-fishery. But of this under the proper head.

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#### SECTION II.—RENT.

So many circumstances, as well extraneous to the value of land, as those influencing its productiveness,



govern the amount of rent, that no satisfactory answer can be given on this head. Near the towns, where there is a competition of tenants, and convenient access to manure, the rent varies from four pounds to one pound ten shillings per acre. In the fertile, but generally imperfectly cultivated district in the northern part of the island, it reaches but in few instances the latter sum. Some garden ground near the town of Douglas fetches ten guineas and upwards. In the Uplands it may be stated at ten shillings; diminishing towards the mountains to five shillings or less.—It is observed that land of an inferior description fetches rent higher in proportion than good land. This is accounted for by the smallness of the number of persons really qualified to form a judgment on its value,

In the course of the last twenty years, the price of land and also the rents have doubled.

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### SECTION III.—TITHE.

THE laws governing this species of property, and its management, in some respects vary from the laws and management of tithes in England. The points of dissimilarity as to the law, are favourable to the Manks cultivator; as to the management, to his prejudice.

In their origin, tithes were probably exclusively destined to the support of the parochial clergy; at present, they have got in a great degree into other hands. When, or by what authority, the change was here effected, it is in vain to inquire; but it would seem that at some remote period, the whole insular tithes were divided into thirds. One third was appropriated to the Bishop of

Man: another to the abbey of Russyn, a monastic institution of the Cistercian order, which in papal days existed in the southern vale of the island; one third only remaining to the clergy. In seven parishes this partition continues. The infractions on the rule which have taken place, as usually happens when the feeble have to contend with the powerful, are in favour of the impropiators.

In one vicarage, the Bishop takes two thirds; in three other parishes, he takes the whole tithes. In one parish the grantees of the Crown take, in right of the abbey of Russyn, two thirds; in another parish, in which the monastery formerly stood, the whole tithes. Of the three rectories, two contribute each one third of their tithes to the Bishop of Man. A short table is added, bringing into one view these variations.

*Names of Parishes. To whom tithes payable in thirds.*

	Bishop.	Abbot.	Clerk.
Kirk Patrick	2	0	1
— German	3	0	0
— Michael	1	1	1
Ballagh (Rectory)	1	0	2
Jurby	3	0	0
Andreas (Rectory)	0	0	3
Kirk Bride (Rectory)	1	0	2
— Christ Lezayre	1	2	0
— Maughold	1	1	1
— Lonah	1	1	1
— Concan	1	1	1
— Braddan	3	0	0
— Maroun	1	1	1
— St. Anne	1	1	1
— Malew	0	3	0
— Arbory	1	1	1
— Rushen	1	2	0

*Observations on the Table.*

In each of what are called the Bishop's parishes, four small estates or portions of land, indefinite in extent and value, named Quarterland, but averaged at 80 acres each, are tithable to the vicar.

About three thousand acres in the parish of Braddan are tithable to the estate of the Nunnery. Such part of these tithes as are not payable out of the estate itself, are let by private agreement to the occupiers respectively; not by auction, or to a proctor.

The small tithes of Arbory parish are payable to the estate of Parville.

The third part of the tithes of Kirk Michael, which was anciently the property of the Abbey of Russyn, have been sold by the impropiator, and are vested in trustees for the benefit of widows and orphans of the insular clergy.

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The mode which is sometimes taken by the agents of his Grace the Duke of Atholl, Grantee or Lessee under the Crown, of the property of the dissolved abbey of Russyn, and by those of the Bishop of Man, to convert into money their tithes, produces considerable injury to the agriculture of the island, and being imitated by some of the incumbents, must discourage and retard its improvement. A public auction is fixed, and the tithes of the parish are let to the highest bidder. On this person is bestowed the appellation, borrowed from the Irish, of his Grace's *Proctor*, or his Lordship's *Proctor*. He then deals with the farmers. If his terms be such as they do not accede to, which may be conjectured to be pretty frequently the case, he then has sub-auctions to let the tithes in parcels. Yearly in the month of May,

when the land is seeded, or its destination of crop known, this gentleman communicates his proctorial dignity, by the rap of the hammer.

The farmers assert that the tithes of parishes in which these practices prevail (which certainly are not universal) often sell for sums beyond, and much beyond their intrinsic value. Sometimes personal hostility influences the bidder: sometimes the expectation of a better crop than the land can produce: sometimes one of those persons bids who keep cows without winter sustenance for their support, and who must at any price procure the hay and straw which provident farmers would wish to retain for their own cattle. Under the present management, agriculture suffers from this tax on improvement, screwed up, or which may be screwed up to the highest pitch, and aggravated by its being combined with the *middle-men* system. The tithes of the parish of Braddan were let in the middle of the last century by the Bishop of Man, to the vicar of the parish (as was then generally practised), at an annual rent of 31*l.* 14*s.* They now let at 200*l.* Those of the small parish of Jurby, which had been let by the Bishop of Man to the incumbent for 17*l.* 3*s.* sterling, were raised in 1755 to 20*l.* and continued at that rent till 1772: in 1810 they produced to the Bishop, a rent of 138*l.*; and in June 1811, were again let by auction for 231*l.* In less than forty years the tithes of this parish have thus been raised in amount above eleven fold. The farmers of the parish themselves were in this last instance fortunate enough to become the lessees for seven years; the proctorial title is in abeyance; and they at peace for the present.

No milk tithes are payable: instead of these, payments are made of four-pence for each cow which had a calf within the year, and two-pence for a cow giving

milk without having had a calf. Lands brought into cultivation are for the first three years, exempt from tithe. Some farms are protected by moduses : of others the tithe has been purchased of the lay impropiator.\* By the insular tithing-law, only such portion of the fruits of the earth as has been separated by cutting, pays tithe : those pulled, or dug up, pay nothing. The ill-omened word "Agistment" has no place in the Manks vocabulary. Of these valuable exemptions, the islanders do not yet make the use they ought, and which in self-defence they naturally will.

The portion of tithes left to the parochial clergy is in some instances compounded for ; in others drawn in kind. The latter is for their domestic consumption, and excites less discontent. The resident clergy are in general exemplary and much respected men ; natives, insufficiently provided for, but attentive to their duty.

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#### SECTION IV.—POOR-RATES.

THE attention of persons acting under the Board's authority is most properly directed to specific objects of enquiry. All of these will not of course apply to every district. In that at present under survey, many of these objects are hardly known, even by name. Happy is it for the island, happy for every class of people residing

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\*The annual value of the impropriate tithes, now the property of his Grace the Duke of Atholl and of those sold by his family, is stated in the schedule to a private Act of the Earl of Derby's, of the present year, and inserted in the Appendix A. No. 1. On what data, or by whom, the estimation of the tithes alienated has been made, or how it is verified, this schedule does not distinctly state.

In it, that among those unknown objects, this is one. Here is no compulsive provision for the poor: no encouragement for population beyond the actual call of employ: no obligation imposed on the frugal and industrious, to satisfy, out of their earnings, the clamours of the dissolute and idle, who demand as a right to be clothed and fed. The manufacturer cannot here impose upon agriculture the burden of supporting his work-people, whom he first renders unfit for other labour, and then discharges: nor have the poor themselves the additional incentive to intemperance and idleness, that the consequences of their misconduct fall on others in a greater degree than on themselves.

It is by no means meant to be asserted that the peculiar policy of England on this head, produces nothing but pure unmixed evil; that individual cases of distress do not arise, which a legal provision for the poor is well calculated to relieve: but if it be made a question whether the good or evil arising from that policy be predominant, the example of this little subject island may fairly be adduced in proof of its being unnecessary and injurious. There are here very few beggars; apparently not so much misery as in countries where the poor are more industrious, as well as provided for by law. Here they provide for themselves sufficiently, and without a murmur.

In theory it appears not improbable that in a country where each individual considers it his duty to contribute to the support of indigent relations, where it would be deemed as disgraceful at it is immoral, to suffer your parent or your offspring to perish in misery, the social affections must be stronger, and called more into action than in another country, where it is the tendency of the poor laws to wear away these "compunctious visitings of nature;" where the child may without

reproach commit his parent, or the parent his child, to the tender mercies of the keeper of a workhouse. In point of fact, the Manks seem a charitable race. In their country-churches, the small brass pan carried round to receive alms, tinkles with the frequent sound of pence dropped by individuals of the humbler classes; and grateful is the sound! The few persons whom abject poverty has reduced, according to the French term "*à la besace*," travel literally with a bag, from cottage to cottage; receiving from others whom fortune has placed in a station little removed above their own, but who are not in possession of coin, those donations in barley-meal, potatoes, or other articles which their scanty stores can spare. A proverb is often quoted, which expresses in the Manks language, that "the gift of the poor to the poor is blessed with a smile from the Almighty."

But the number of persons reduced to the last state of indigence does not appear to be considerable. During four months' residence in the island the Reporter was but once accosted by a common beggar. On enquiry he could not hear of a single instance within memory, of any person, at least not an instance of a native, having perished from want.

In aid of the charity collected on Sundays in the churches, several of the parishes have small sums, being the produce of legacies invested in the incumbents' and wardens' names, on securities. At least seven of the parishes possess also some lands; the rents of which as well as the interest of the sums lent out on securities, are faithfully employed in the relief of the indigent. On the occurrence of cases of peculiar distress, the governor has occasionally authorised the reading of briefs in the churches, after divine service, for the relief of the sufferers, by donations given for that individual object.

But this power is at present rarely exercised. As it interferes with the parochial collections, made by each for its own poor, the clergy are not friendly to it.

A parochial assessment is made by authority of Vestry, and called a church cess, the amount of which is destined to the repairs of sacred buildings and of the parochial school-houses, with the residences for the masters, where they exist.—In ten of the seventeen parishes into which the island is divided, parochial school-houses, with dwellings for the masters, have been erected. In six parishes there are school-houses, but no dwellings for the masters: in the one remaining parish there is neither school nor dwelling-house. These, in most instances, have been erected at the charge of the parishioners; in one or two, by the bounty of individuals. The funds from which the salaries of the masters are paid, are, 1st, an annual sum of 18*l.* royal bounty, divisible among six schoolmasters; 2nd, 36*l.* payable out of the proceeds of a charitable fund collected by Dr. Barrow, Bishop of Sodor and Man, in the reign of Charles the Second, invested on the security of the impropriate tithes of the island, and which is applicable, principally, to the augmentation of the ministers' stipends; and 3d, an annual payment of 39*l.* a bequest of Lady Elizabeth Hastings, divisible among fourteen schoolmasters. It is understood that the nett stipend of each parochial schoolmaster in money is about 4*l.* 18*s.* He instructs children of both sexes in reading English (their native dialect of Celtic never being taught), in writing and arithmetic; receiving from the parents, 1*s.* per quarter for instructing in reading only: 1*s.* 6*d.* for reading and writing: 2*s.* 6*d.* for reading, writing, and arithmetic.



## SECTION V.—LEASES.

THE encouragement to improvement which leases afford, is by no means deficient. The contrary extreme is rather more observable: sufficient attention is seldom, if ever, paid to the nature of the covenants into which the tenant enters. As the improving tenants are rarely Manksmen, usually natives of the north of England, or Scotland, the inducement of a lease must be held out for the removal of themselves and their capital, and for their stipulating to pay a handsome rent. Terms for twenty-one years are not unfrequent; and in several instances, these have been assigned to others, with considerable profit to the lessees. If landlords are little scrupulous in dictating the conditions on which they let, on the other hand they do not appear forward in making advances for buildings, or other substantial improvements. Three white crops in succession are not forbidden: no restriction or penalty on ploughing up ancient pasture: the obligation to consume at home the hay and straw grown on the premises, or to lay out the price of fodder, if sold, or any part of it, in the purchase of manure, is often neglected. The sale, at harvest, on the ground, of the crop in sheaf, when gathered into what are provincially called *stooks*, seems an ordinary practice. A custom has been established, that the tenant at will removing, shall be entitled to one half of the white crop following a potatoe crop, on paying half the rent, seed, and tillage. The day of entering upon farms is usually the 12th day of November, and the rents are payable yearly, sometimes half yearly, on the 12th of May and the 12th of November.



# Table of Expenses and

face p. 35.

## Turnips; Expense per Acre.

Rent and tithe  
 Four ploughings, 7s. each  
 Picking and leading off weeds, &c.  
 Four harrowings, at 2s. 6d.  
 Making and forming drills  
 Forty load of dung, carting, spreading, &c. at 1s.  
 Covering dung, 5s.; seed, 3s.; drilling and co  
 1s. 6d.  
 Two horse-hoeings, 10s.; two hand-hoeings, 6  
 Taking up and carting home 40 load, at 3d.

3 6

## Barley, sown broadcast.

Rent and tithe  
 2 ploughings, 15s.; 3 harrowings, at 2s. 6d. ea  
 4 bushel of seed, at 4s. 6d.; sowing, 1s.  
 Reaping, carrying, stacking, thrashing, and  
 purchaser

26 11 3

21 12 3

## Ray Grass and Clover.

Rent and tithe  
 14 lbs. clover-seed, at 1s. 6d.; 1 bushel ray g  
 10s. 6d.  
 Sowing, harrowing, rolling, and picking stones  
 Mowing, making, carrying, stacking, &c.

tem.

profit  
 num.

## Pasture.

Rent and tithes, 40s.; attendance and casualties

d.

## Wheat.

5

## SECTION VI.—EXPENSES AND PROFITS.

IN countries where agriculture is systematical, considerable difficulty and discordance of opinion occur in estimating charges and probable profits. In a district like the present, where there is no system, where the art is yet in its infancy, and practised by the best and very worst of farmers, on soils of every possible variety, the attempt to form calculations applying indiscriminately to the district, would be at once fallacious and nugatory. A short table will however be added of the charge attendant on the five-shift system, and the profits to be expected from medium crops, both calculated from actual experience, on good loam, in the southern vale of the island.

A similar calculation is made of the expenses and probable profit attending a crop of potatoes ; and also of meadow hay, in the same situation.

In forming this table, nothing is charged for dung, or allowed for straw : the labour is rated at what it would cost, if every day were fine. To compensate rainy days, perhaps about 15 per cent. should be added to those charges. No deduction is made for the interest on capital employed ; for the purchase or carriage of lime with which the land must occasionally be dressed ; for the carriage of sea-weed or sea-sand when accessible ; for the construction or repair of fences ; for statute labour on the roads, and other casual small charges. On these heads, a further abatement should be made of at least 30 per cent. on the computed profits.

## CHAP. V.

## IMPLEMENTS.

## SECTION I.—PLOUGHS.

THE Manks farmers appear originally to have borrowed their practices from Ireland ; their tools in some measure from Scotland, and the north-west coast of England. The ploughs formerly in general use, and still to be seen at work in some upland farms, resemble in construction the old Scottish plough ; with the mould-board straight and long, the share narrow and pointed, calculated for stony uneven land. They are drawn by three or four horses, with a driver. In the low-land farms these ploughs have been superseded by the swing-plough, drawn by two horses abreast, without a driver. These have a curved mould-board, at present often formed of cast iron ; are nine or ten inches wide at the heel ; sufficiently high in the beam to keep clear of weeds : at the point of the beam, they are provided with a regulator for the width and depth of the furrows, varying from eight inches to four inches. The handles are fixed, and joined by two cross-bars. There are in the island wheel-ploughs, but not in general use. The ploughs of other constructions, detailed in the *Beard's* instructions, are here unknown. To answer the purpose of trench-ploughing, one plough follows another in the same furrow. The situations in which the soil is of sufficient depth for this management, are not

frequent. Where very deep ploughing has been practised, coltsfoot has followed. And the same effect has been found to result from lazy-bed potatoes.

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SECTION II.—HARROWS.

THE ancient harrows had teeth of wood ; those now in use are of the ordinary construction, having from 48 to 64 teeth, from six to eight inches below the wood. On every examination, these appeared, without exception, quadrangular; and not triangular or round ; either of which forms would seem to be preferable. The driver walks behind. When the quantity of weed on the land is so great as to require additional aid, a boy attends to drive. Light gangs drawn by single horses are not in use, except with small holders.

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SECTION III.—ROLLERS.

GOOD stone rollers are constructed of the blocks of granite, found in detached masses in the mountains : each stone split and dressed costs from one guinea and a half to two guineas. The insertion of the axle, and the frame may about equal the same sum.

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SECTION IV.—DRILLS.

DRILLING corn is here a novelty, at present confined to a very few improvers about the two principal towns. Turnip-seed is universally delivered by a drill.

THIS is a round tin canister, suspended on a pair of iron-rimmed wheels; a funnel sheds the seed over the coulter, which cuts about an inch into the soil. A light roller levels the top of one fidge, and covers the other which is sown. A drill of this description, with a man and boy driving a poney, may sow ten or twelve acres a day.

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#### SECTION V.—HORSE-HOES.

FOR hoeing potatoes and turnips, the common plough, or one of the same make, but smaller, is used. For the former purpose, they have also a small triangular harrow formed in three divisions, the two exterior of which may be placed at a greater or less distance, proportioned to the space between the rows. In working, this tool is guided by handles, formed like those of the plough. It is called a *potatoe-harrow*, and seems well adapted for cleaning and pulverizing the intervals.

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#### SECTION VI.—THRASHING MILLS,

THE first thrashing-machine in the island was completed in 1793; since that period, two have been erected of a construction to be wrought by four horses; thirty-four wrought by two horses, sixteen wrought by water, and one by steam. To meet the harvest of 1811, about twenty others are now in preparation. No injury to the barley converted into malt, has been found to result from the thrashing by the machine. By its means, wheat, when affected by smut, which is frequent in the southern division of the island, receives less injury than

by the flail. Few of the balls are broken, and by taking out the screens, and permitting the grain to pass in small quantities with a sharp turn in the second operation, the balls are for the most part separated.

A method of preserving the straw, from which the grain has been separated by means of the thrashing machine, in a state fit for thatching, has been adopted by one ingenious farmer in the island. The wheel is first removed by which the rollers are moved; these are then fixed a little asunder by two small pieces of wood: two men place the heads of the wheat between the rollers, and when the grain is clean thrashed out, draw back the straw, without allowing it to pass into the drum. By this simple method the straw is preserved unbroken.

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#### SECTION VII.—CHAFF-CUTTERS.

THE chaff-cutters here in use, are wrought by hand, or by a mill, with knives set in a wheel. They are purchased in London for about ten guineas. None of those wrought by the knee are here in use.

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#### SECTION VIII.—WAGGONS.

WAGGONS, or tumbrils, of the description used in the eastern counties, are unknown. Perhaps, on the whole, their absence is not to be regretted. To heavy loaded carriages, the narrowness and the imperfect construction of the roads would present serious obstacles; and the necessity of locking the wheels of waggons in steep descents, would destroy the roads altogether. The occasions when waggons are useful in agriculture are not of very frequent recurrence.



## SECTION IX.—CARTS.

THE primitive mode of transporting the harvest from the field to the farmer's yard, was on horses' backs, or by means of sledges formed of two shafts, connected by five or six cross-bars, and widening in a small degree at the end which trailed on the ground. At the other end, these were secured to the horse's back. These awkward implements continued to be used by a few individuals 'till within these two years, and possibly may be to this day. They were long since superseded in general use by the Irish car, with solid low wheels. Though these latter have in their turn given way to carts, the use of which is universal, yet a few still remain, principally in the hands of Irish settlers.

From the narrow entrances left anciently in the fields, it is evident that it was not then foreseen that other modes of conveyance, besides the sledge or the Irish car, would be adopted. Both single-horse, and two-horse carts are now generally used; two of the former are often conducted by a single driver. In one instance the Manks servants refused to conduct each two carts; and in their opposition met with some support against their master as an innovator. Finally, they yielded the point, and would now reluctantly recur to their ancient method.

## SECTION X.—DRAINING MILLS, &amp;c.

No draining mills have been erected, or appear requisite; nor are the sluices numerous.

## SECTION XI.—HOES, SPADES, &amp;c.

ON account of the abundance of stones in the soil, spades are usually pointed. One particular tool of this denomination is here termed a Manks spade, and is probably peculiar to the island, and to some districts in Scotland. The iron part is throughout about four inches wide, and strongly constructed; near its top, an iron spur projects at right angles, on which the labourer's foot presses. The use of this tool is principally found in raising the surface sods of which their fences are composed, which it effects more neatly than the common spade. It is also adapted to land full of stones or furze roots. On account of its strength, it is occasionally used as a small crow in taking up the field-stones.—There is not in the island a machine for weighing beasts alive.—Winnowing machines have been long in use.

## CHAP. VI.

### ENCLOSING.

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#### SECTION I.

THE greater part of the mountainous district in the centre and south-western part of the island, has not been reclaimed for the purposes of agriculture, but is dedicated principally to the support of a wild and hardy breed of sheep; and in the summer months, of a few colts and young cattle. To a country destitute of coal, and nearly destitute of wood, this district is invaluable by its supply of fuel. The turbaries which it contains are free to all the inhabitants. Its herbage affords a common without stint as to the animals, and without any restriction, in practice, as to those who place them there. The proprietary government, during which the grantee of the crown was in possession of all the public authority, ceased in 1765. Whilst it was in existence, applications by individuals were occasionally made to the governor to obtain licence to appropriate a portion of the waste. From him a reference was made to an established jury in each Sheading, called the Great Inquest, in order to examine on view whether the proposed enclosure interfered with any turbary, road, or the rights of any individual, or of the public. In the event of the proposed enclosure meeting the approbation of the jury, and of their favourable report, the governor's assent followed; a rent was affixed; and the land newly granted was termed, "*An intack.*" On the extinction

of the proprietary government, and the consequent appointment of the governor by the crown, his interference in manerial affairs would have been improper, and the great inquest has ceased to receive applications for new intacks. The tract of land now used in common is indeed inadequate, and were it of twenty times the present extent, it would as certainly become inadequate to support the stock depastured there. Some intacks of ancient date remain to this day unenclosed. The most valuable of these, after changing hands, and frequent ineffectual attempts, by fencing, towards the exclusion of the hungry animals by which it was surrounded, was not completely secured by stone walling, 'till the month of June 1811. The progress of enclosure on the mountain, under the present system, is now probably at an end.

Whether the sheep kept by some contiguous proprietors occasionally throughout the year, on the waste, really produce to their owners any profit, is doubtful. The surface of this elevated region is in part covered with plants, which the animal will not touch till compelled by dire necessity. Its sufferings during the severe weather sometimes occasion great mortality. Those that remain are sold at the age of three, four, or five years, at various prices, at present from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 15*s.* each. When shorn, eight fleeces unwashed average only seven pounds of wool; some of the sheep indeed have but little wool to lose. The injury to the public by the trespassing of these starving animals is not inconsiderable; and whilst the common is overstocked, and the contiguous holdings are improving, the mischief done by them will increase with the temptation.

Were the consent of the parties most interested to be hoped for, to the plan of locating and appropriating the waste, the same benefits which have resulted from

similar measures in other countries, would result in this. The interest of the Lord and of the Church being provided for, either by the appropriation of an adequate portion of the waste, or by a compensation in money; the turbaries remaining on the present footing, but with improved access, and the interests of individuals who might receive peculiar injury, being carefully attended to, the remainder might be parcelled out and sold for the public use. The roads, bridges, public buildings, and other objects of importance to this little community, at present in a state of neglect, might be placed and preserved in a proper state by means of this fund, if it were managed with judgment and fidelity. Each portion of the waste, when made private property, enclosed, drained, and receiving the other improvements of which it is capable, would become valuable summer pasture for sheep: the rocky and steep portions planted with trees, adapted to such a situation, would afford shelter to the remainder, great ornament to the island, and in time a supply of timber, for which it is now tributary to other countries.

The consent of the persons who are most interested from vicinity to the mountain in keeping it in its present state, or of any considerable portion of them, is however at present little to be expected: the measure would be unpopular. This and other obstacles, to which it is unnecessary to allude, forbid all hope of soon attaining it, however desirable and however probable hereafter to be carried into effect.

Among the mountains, in several spots, considerably elevated, and of very thin soil, appear at this day evident traces of the plough; the ridge and furrow being clearly discernible. No tradition remains of the occasion on which these lands were brought under tillage; nor in the present day of improved agriculture and increased

population, would it be deemed advisable to repeat the experiment. It may be conjectured that these higher lands may have been brought into cultivation in extraordinarily wet seasons, when the vallies were so much deluged as to preclude the islanders from committing in due time their seed to the earth. That the drainage of the lower lands was, two or three centuries ago, imperfect, and the discharge of the fresh water to sea impeded by obstacles which no longer exist, appears from this circumstance, that some portion of the land near the streams, which at present is the most productive, and not peculiarly subject to be inundated, is *intack*. It therefore must have been brought into cultivation, though infinitely superior in quality, at a period long subsequent to the cultivation of the higher grounds. A portion of the mountain may therefore possibly have been brought into tillage only on extraordinary occasions, and none more probably in such a climate, than in those of continued inundation, when this measure may have been resorted to as one of their resources against impending famine, by individuals obliged to seek those resources entirely within themselves.

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#### SECTION II.—FENCES.

THE materials of which fences have been and still are ordinarily constructed, are the sods taken from the surface, and piled up in an equilateral triangle to the height of about five feet. In width, at the foundation, they reach six feet; at the summit, about two feet. They are constructed in the winter, or early spring, at the price, at present, of from 5*d.* to 7*d.* per yard. During the summer they cover them with sward. The

space of ground robbed of its surface for materials to construct these hedges, varies with the quality of the soil, and the dimensions of the hedge. In a good soil, not less than four feet on each side must be sacrificed; on very indifferent shallow soil, where the stones approached the surface, and straggling furze intervened, an instance appeared in the erection of a recent fence, where fourteen feet at a medium on each side the fence had been excoriated. From the first moment of the erection of this attempt at a fence, its decay commences. In sandy soils, portions at one side of the hedge often slip down together to a considerable extent. From the mere action of the elements, it is daily returning to the surface from which it came; and new sacrifices of soil must be made to keep it at the original elevation. In the western counties of England, mounds thus formed were destined to the growth of trees and brushwood; but the comparatively unsubstantial width of a Manks fence precludes this mode of application. Furze seed is sometimes sown at the top; and when the plant is in vigour, and properly treated, is its best appendage. The root strikes deep, and adds solidity, whilst the top mats sufficiently to exclude the passage of any animal. At the end of three years the autumn is taken for burning the thorny part of the plant, as occasionally managed, and the larger stalks are afterwards cut off for domestic fuel; sometimes the whole plant is cut down near the hedge, and deposited at the foot, on the side from which trespassing is apprehended. The practice of sowing furze, though a considerable improvement of this description of fence, is not universal; nor do double rows appear in frequent use. Sometimes in the northern district, a few straggling sallows appear on the summit of the fence, for what purpose is not very evident; attempts have been made to dig up a spit at

the top of an old fence, muck it, and plant quick. In one or two instances, these have, for the present, prospered; but, in general, the summit of the fence, when in repair, is devoted to the undisturbed possession of weeds, for the growth of which it at once affords a convenient asylum, and the best contrivance ingenuity could devise for their propagation.

The original purpose which fences in this island appear to have been designed to answer, was rather, it might be supposed, to ascertain the extent of each man's holding, than for the exclusion of strangers' cattle, or to keep in his own. The latter purpose, if within their view, was very imperfectly attained. By the collection of insular laws, it appears that in 1577, the two Deemsters, or common law judges, registered among old customs, which had never been put into writing, but used and allowed of long time, "that all manner of tenants shall make a sufficient ditch\* to defend his goods from his neighbour's; that is to know, such a ditch as shall defend horse or cow, and to be made from the annunciation of our Blessed Lady till Michaelmas, and to keep a sufficient herd to keep their beasts from doing injury to one another." The Deputy and Council pronounce in 1583, "that it shall be lawful for every occupier of land to keep the same several, winter and summer; making his ditches environing the ground in such lawful repair, and keeping the same, as the course of the law appointeth, viz. every ditch of the height of four foot

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\* By *ditch* is here meant *hedge*. The word probably is a corrupted sound of *dyke*, or mound; and is used in that sense in Ireland.



"and a half, and in thickness of a double ditch," according to the ancient and usual custom of the Isle." This "sufficient ditch," four feet and a half high, would indeed require a "sufficient herd" in addition. Pinfolds, or pounds, were also established, to which trespassing cattle were conducted. In 1665 the insular Legislature interferes, and orders the Great Inquest to present all persons neglecting to make sufficient and able fences, as well in winter as in summer and harvest, and not continuing the fencing in every year. In default, fines are imposed. Again, in 1691, the Legislature returns to the subject of fences. As ill-disposed persons will not join with their neighbours in making up and repairing their part of the fences; in case any person in future encloses any parcel of land, and be willing to make fences to the expenses of which his neighbours, whose lands abut on his, and who are by law obliged to make up the fence with him, refuse to contribute, the Governor, or Deemsters, may require the reluctant person to join in making up and repairing the fences within an appointed time. If they still refuse, the work is to be completed by the person fencing; he is to keep and deliver an account, on oath, of the charges, and execution is to be granted against the offenders for their share.

These fences had, previously, it appears, been raised to the height of five feet. By this law, they receive an additional elevation of six inches, with a trench at the bottom of one foot nine inches, and three feet broad; and are directed to be of the height of six feet perpen-

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\* By a *double ditch* is meant a hedge, consisting of two exterior ranges of sods, with a space between them filled with earth raised from the side or bottom.

difficult, where a trench cannot be made. In 1776 the legislature return to the charge: in case of the insufficiency of boundary-fences, of one party's being disposed to erect a stone wall, the other refusing, a jury is directed to be impannelled to inquire on view, and report the expense of putting the actual fence into repair, and keeping it in that state for ten years. Half the amount of that sum when ascertained, is enjoined to be paid by the person refusing, to the person undertaking to build a stone-wall. The dimensions of this are to be at least two feet four inches in the foundation; five feet in height; and sixteen inches broad at such height, with proper coping. Means were taken to shorten boundary-fences when running irregularly; which is often remarkably the case in the island. But no means are provided for compelling the erection of a stone-wall, where no fence had previously existed. Thus stands the insular law respecting fences: in the statute book, it appears a subject of frequent recurrence: great indignation is expressed, and hard epithets bestowed on those vile trespassers. It does not seem once to have occurred to the legislators, as it should oftener to those who call names, that the fault does not perhaps lie with those on whom these epithets are bestowed, but with themselves. They are proceeding on a wrong system: they are endeavoring to produce by means of fines and penalties, that which the laws of matter and motion forbid. An earth-bank four feet and a half, or five feet high, is not at first a sufficient fence against most animals. In order to procure the food growing on the fence itself, they all acquire the habit of clambering on it, and of then seeking that food on the opposite side. But if it were at first a sufficient fence, from its nature it must fall into disrepair. By the legislature's dividing it in halves, between contiguous owners, they sow the seeds

of discord ; they make it the interest of each to throw the burden of repairs on his neighbour, and consequently to neglect it himself. To this very system, therefore, the present disrepair of fences, and the disputes which they generate, may be attributed ; and, in fact, the fences are in a state even more wretched than might be expected.

Some remedies are occasionally attempted : in the mountain, large slates are set into the hedge obliquely, near the summit, and touching each other. In the lowlands, short stakes are set into it at the distance of four or five feet from the bottom, and two parallel ropes of straw, or of heath, are wound round them, leading from stake to stake.

In the materials of this description of fence, a variation is occasionally to be seen ; alternate rows of sods and of stones being used in its construction. It is probable that the motive for this practice was to get rid of stones with which a field was occasionally encumbered, and not with the view to add stability to the hedge. It would indeed appear to have rather an opposite tendency. This practice also, is said to be borrowed from the Irish.

Shackles for all animals are in common use. By these, provincially termed *lankets*, the legs are attached together ; usually the fore leg and hind leg, sometimes on one side, sometimes on both. In the low lands, sheep are generally submitted to this discipline, never in this country being attended by a shepherd. Indeed every animal, from the bull down to the peacock, has its lankets. There being no hurdles to be procured, in cases where they would be employed in England, if sward be on the spot the Manks farmer makes no ceremony of digging it up in sods to erect into a temporary fence of three or four feet in height. This he

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constructs of a single row of sods, caps it with furze, and commits to its protection an adjoining crop. In the upland farms, where stones are at hand, dry stone walls are constructed nearly of the dimensions prescribed by the insular law ; the expense varying, according to the distance of the quarry, from 1s. 8d. to 3s. per yard. But few farms have white-thorn fences ; where they have been tried, and proper protection afforded them, they have universally succeeded.

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### SECTION III.—GATES.

THE deficiency of timber has induced the wealthier farmers to substitute for posts two pillars ; cylindrical, square, or rhomboidal ; constructed of stone and mortar, on which the gate is hung and secured. The cost of these is about a guinea each ; the gates themselves are too often in disrepair, sometimes totally gone : and in their stead single poles are substituted, running into holes left in each pillar ; or loose stones are piled up ; or furze faggots ; or often the favourite wall of single sods. All these substitutes for gates are removed when access into the field is wanted ; and afterwards replaced.

## CHAP. VII.

## ARABLE LAND.

## SECTION I.—TILLAGE.

THE introduction into the island of improved tools, and of the labourer who conducts them; the instruction which the Manks servants have received under his guidance; and the imitation, by others, of his practices, have produced visible effects. On the recently improved farms, the different operations of husbandry are neatly executed: the progress of the native farmer is indeed slow, but this does not appear to arise from any reluctance to adopt foreign fashions. Though the price of horses, and horse keeping, wages, and the price of implements have doubled within twenty years, it is admitted that actual tillage is effected at a reduced expense. Ploughing is usually performed by two horses without a driver; occasionally, where cattle are small, or the land rough or steep, by three and a driver. No plough formerly penetrated above three inches into the soil, and the ridges were crooked and narrow; with broad headlands unturned altogether. The beneficial effects of ploughing to the depth of seven or eight inches, have in several instances been apparent, and in soils similarly circumstanced, the example will probably be followed. No seed is committed to the earth without ploughing: lazy-bed potatoes are indeed raised by the operation of the spade only, and occasionally on peaty

soils, these are followed by wheat, sown immediately subsequent to the raising of the potatoe crop, without any intermediate ploughing. The reason assigned for this practice is, that the peat, which was buried at the time of the potatoe-planting, would, by the operation of the plough, be raised again to the surface, and would therefore become dry, and be reduced to mould less perfectly. On account of the rapid vegetation in summer, and of the humid climate, in no country are hand-hoeing and weeding more necessary operations; in none, perhaps, are they more neglected. In the arable, docks, may-weed, charlock, and corn mary-gold; in the pastures, thistles, and, above all, rag-wort, disgrace the scene. For ages these plants have been lodging their seeds; and the fences aid in distributing them. The excuse generally assigned is, the difficulty of procuring hands to weed. A little farmer honestly avowed to the Reporter, what probably in his and many instances was the fact, that his reason for not attacking the weeds was because there were so many of them.

The furrows here are generally laid according to the declivity. Hollow spots have drains made with the spade; but water-furrows carefully formed by the plough, and cleared, by the shovel, of obstructions as they arise, as practised in the well cultivated counties of England, have not been introduced, except in a very few instances.

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#### SECTION II.—FALLOWING.

NAKED fallows do not enter into any usual course of Manks husbandry. When the weeds cannot be got under for a spring crop, or when manure is scarce, fallowing may occasionally be resorted to: this method has also been taken to bring in coarse land; but it has given way to paring and burning.

## SECTION III.—COURSE OF CROPS.

WERE the general principle inquired into, by which the native farmer is guided, and by which evidently his course of cropping has been governed, it would be simply, to plough and raise white crops as long as the land will bear them. Occasionally the wants of his family, or his own defect of capital, or of industry, may disturb the operation ; but by this principle, so far as lies in his power, he does in fact abide.

The object in view in every country, it is apprehended, should be to discover which of the profitable plants is best adapted to the soil and climate, and with them to continue cropping, in that order of succession, and in that mode of treatment, which experience proves to yield the greatest produce. To these principles many of the insular farmers have too little adverted. Their view is immediate profit. Lime, marl, or sea-weeds are employed for the purpose of forcing their lands to produce grain, and for that object alone. On farms where improved practices have been adopted, a more regular system, of course, takes place ; beginning with a fallowing crop, or fallow, limed, or dunged, or both ; and terminating with grass-seeds. After a crop or two of hay, these are surrendered to pasture. Clover is seldom sown without a mixture either of ray-grass, or of white meadow-hay (*Holcus lanatus*), and not often broken up from the lay of one year without top dressing. Oats are sown on old lays, or barley, after two ploughings, where sea-weed is easily procured.

In the northern district, pease are often an intermediate crop, rarely, in the middle or southern. Autumnal rains frequently intervening make the sowing of this crop hazardous.

As the culture of each crop is separately to be described, their ordinary succession is alone here to be noticed.

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| 1. Fallow, or fallow crop manured.            | 1. Lay oats or barley.                         |
| 2. Wheat, or barley sown off.                 | 2. Oats.                                       |
| 3. Clover and ray-grass, or white grass mown. | 3. Fallow crop manured.                        |
| 4. Second mowing, or pasture.                 | 4. Wheat, barley, or oats sown off.            |
|   | 5. Clover and ray, or white grass mown.        |
| 1. Fallow as before.                          | 1. Pared and burnt for wheat, sometimes limed. |
| 2. Wheat.                                     | 2. Oats or barley; twice ploughed and seeded.  |
| 3. Barley, twice ploughed.                    | 3. Hay, or pasture.                            |
| 4. Oats sown off.                             |  |
| 5. Mown or pastured.                          |  |

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#### SECTION IV.—WHEAT.

DOUBTS have been entertained as to the period of time when the culture of this primary article of human sustenance was introduced into the island. It is supposed by some persons to have been of novel introduction; and the opinion has been fortified by a persuasion almost as general, and which continued till recently, that there are in the island but few soils on which this plant can be brought to maturity. By a document in Rymer's *Fœdera*,\* it appears that in 1235, in the reign

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\* Vol. I. p. 342. See Appendix A. No. II.



of Henry the Third, the petty sovereign of this island, then independent, received from the king of England a yearly grant of money, and of articles furnished by the Irish government, on condition of his defending from pirates that part of the Irish Channel which is contiguous to the coasts of the Isle of Man. One of those articles furnished was wheat. With the command of hands and of soil, which the sovereign of this pigmy territory possessed, seeing an article which he coveted raised on land no better than his own, and by people as little advanced in civilization as those whom he governed, it seems probable that part of this tributary wheat would be consigned to mother earth; and that he would endeavor to make his own table, at least, independent of the supplies of his powerful neighbour. This is but conjecture; but, it is hoped, probable conjecture. Strong evidence arises of the cultivation of wheat by the islanders as early as the 14th century. It appears that they had at one time bought of the Scots a year's truce for 300 marks. Not having been able to raise the whole of this sum, they had loaded a vessel with different articles to make up the amount, and among these, was wheat. In her passage to Scotland, their vessel was intercepted by some Irishmen; and Edward the Third, in the 16th year of his reign (1343) issues a writ close to the Chief Justice of Ireland for her liberation.\* If the necessities of the islanders were at that time so great as to prevent their raising this sum in specie, it is infinitely more probable that the wheat found on board was of their own production, than that it had been previously imported. At the time of the dissolution of monasteries, an allowance for the wheat formerly delivered to Russyn Abbey was among the conditions exacted by

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\* Prynne's Animadv. on the 4th Inst. Cap. 69, p. 385.

the officers of the crown from the tenantry ;\* and a rent ascertained by the then value of wheat, appears to be among the payments still made to the grantee from the crown.

In Camden's time, Dr. John Meryk, Bishop of Sodor and Man, from 1577 to 1600, enumerates wheat among the insular crops, and corn among the exported articles.†

The culture of wheat could not, however, have been extensive. Even at this day it has not entered into the ordinary food of the inferior orders of people dwelling in the towns, and still less of the peasantry. With other English habits, in the towns especially, they begin indeed to relish the wheaten loaf. Though the culture of this grain now extends to every farm of any magnitude, yet the island appears to derive part of its supply from the English coast.‡

The seed-bed usually is either—1st, fallow ; 2d, clover-lay ; or 3d, after potatoes. To each the quantity of seed is usually from two to three Winchester bushels. The fallow being prepared, and either limed or manured, receives the seed as soon after harvest as possible. It is then ploughed under, and slightly harrowed. Lay-ground receives one furrow, and the seed is well harrowed in.

On account of the late removal of the potatoe crop, the wheat which succeeds it is the last sown. If the weather be wet, as is often the case, the sowing

\* MS. Hist. of the Isle of Man, p. 28, in the Reporter's possession.

† Camden's *Britannia*, edition 1696, p. 1051.

‡ See Tables of Importation of Grain, Appendix B. No. 1 and 2.

To supply a quantity of grain equal to the importation into the island in the year 1810, the President of the Agricultural Society calculates that there would be requisite the produce of 115 acres of wheat, 503 acres of barley, and 316 acres of oats.—President's Report, 1811, page 109.

is sometimes protracted as late as February. In this mode good crops are still obtained, and potatoes are deemed the most advantageous preparation. Early drawn turnips are also sometimes succeeded by wheat. Steeping in salt water, or brine, is universally practised, and the seed afterwards is dried by powdered lime. Dibbling is quite unknown; and hoeing the young wheat too much neglected. Both red and white wheats are used; the red considered the hardiest. The depth of the seed does not exceed three inches. Water-furrowing in low-lying parts of fields is practised, and casting the earth out of all the furrows on the ridge is deemed good management. The benefits of rolling and spring-harrowing are well understood. Feeding off with sheep in the spring is not uncustomary, and it is here thought that no injury arises to the sample, on the contrary, that it makes the wheat tiller. The ordinary commencement of reaping is about the 15th or 20th of August. When the collections of sheaves of wheat, here called *stooks*, are made, they usually consist of ten sheaves each. It is not the practice to top them, as it is those of oats and barley. As wheat is less subject than other grain to take heat, the stooks are sooner ready for carting. When the weather before and during harvest is rainy, blight and mildew sometimes appear, but never to any serious extent, nor are the other maladies enumerated by the Board in any degree prevalent, except indeed smut, which sometimes affects the crops, particularly of white wheat, in the southern part of the island, to a great extent; and without receiving, as some persons think, any check from steeping. Where barn-room can be afforded, wheat is housed in preference to any other grain, but the greater part is preserved abroad in round stacks, with conical tops, covered by straw rope, wrought in

the usual manner in net work. These stacks contain from 100 to 200 stooks each. When thrashing was performed by the flail, it was seldom done by task-work, usually by the day, and too often by women. If done by task-work, the price at present paid is not less than 1s. 6d. by the boll. That term, when applied to wheat, signifies four bushels.

The price varies with the English market. The crop of 1810 was sold from 1*l.* 16*s.* to 2*l.* 2*s.* the boll; making up the weight to 64lb. per bushel, which is always demanded by the buyer, and usually requires an additional peck. Millers charge from 6*d.* to 9*d.* per bushel grinding and dressing: There are no windmills in the island; but the work is not so perfectly done as in general in English mills.

The practice, and the term of gleaning, are unknown in this island.

The edge of the sickle is throughout jagged, and never in part or the whole sharp-cutting; the straw is separated so near the ground, that the stubble is left to be covered by the succeeding plough.

Twenty-four bushels per acre may be stated as a full average crop; but as the severity of the winter winds often destroys the plant, and as the land is not usually in heart for wheat, it must ever be considered as a precarious crop. Spring wheat is sometimes sown, when the tillage of a farm is much behind hand. The clover sown with it is observed not to succeed so well, as with barley.

In the manufacture of bread, nothing peculiar occurs to mention. There is no assize; and the public baker charges *ad libitum*.

## SECTION V.—RYE.

A very small quantity is grown; it is not in use even for the valuable purpose of spring sheep-feed.

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## SECTION VI.—BARLEY.

THIS may be viewed as the staple product of the country, receiving the greatest attention, and occupying the largest portion of land. After potatoes or turnips, the land is once or twice ploughed; stubbles, and land, to which sea-weed has been applied, twice or thrice. No barley is put in without ploughing; and the scarifier has not been used for this purpose. Barley is sometimes sown on rich old lay, and occasionally is substituted for wheat on clover layers. It is also sometimes sown on a winter's fallow, and in that case the land receives at least three stirrings; is well manured in the spring; and the seed is usually ploughed under. The time of depositing it commences after oat-sowing, and is continued till the middle of May, or later. Both four-rowed and two-rowed are sown; the four-rowed ripening earlier on the crude or cold soils; the two-rowed, to which the preference in the market is given, on those in good condition. The quantity of seed is from three to four bushels per acre, deposited at the depth of three or four inches. It is rolled, especially if grass seeds accompany it. Cutting with the sickle is the general mode practised; some have introduced the scythe, and afterwards bound the barley into sheaves. In this climate, with the change of weather, which generally takes place in the latter end of August or the beginning of September, barley requires at least a fortnight in the field after

cutting. Its straw being then cut low, and generally grassy at the bottom of the sheaves, is full of moisture which renders it subject to take heat in the stack. Even in dry harvests mistakes are often made in too early stacking, before the bottoms of the sheaves are sufficiently withered, though they may wear that appearance. The stook consists of ten sheaves, set slanting to one another, with two coverers. The produce reaped varies from 50 to 26, and may be averaged at 33 bushels to the acre. This grain is not sold by weight, which may be stated at from 45lb. to 54lb. per bushel. The four-rowed is not so heavy; it is longer and less plump, but is found to be fit for malting from the field.

The straw and awns are disposed of in feeding cattle.

Although there are not any fiscal regulations or tax imposed on malt, or on beer, the profession of a maltster is unknown; and there is not a peck of malt to be bought in the island. It is manufactured by the public brewers alone, and by a very few individuals, who make malt for their own consumption. The breweries, therefore, which are numerous, have the manufacture in their own hands.

In the year 1780, there were but seven or eight public breweries; there are now about twenty-four in the island. With the increased competition, the quality of their beer has not improved.

The present price of barley is about 5s. a bushel; and the careful farmers complain, that between the price of the worst, and of the best barley, little distinction is made by the brewer. This grain ground fine, and sifted, is in universal use among the poorer classes for the purpose of bread. It is simply made into dough with water, kneaded out into thin round cakes of about fifteen inches diameter, and baked on flat cast-iron plates, called girdles or griddles, which are heated by

burning under them dry fern, or furze. A barley-cake, being soft, does not keep above a week.

Winter-barley has been introduced for soiling ; is in several instances used, and held in great estimation. When the crop is saved, it is found in this windy climate to suffer exceedingly by shaking.

The mulcture paid on oats and barley is one twenty-fourth part.

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#### SECTION VII.—OATS.

IN the uplands, oats form the principal crop, and are indeed in general cultivation. The small common white oats, provincially called "Placket," are sown on inferior soils ; the potatoe-oats on those in better condition. The latter answer well ; frequently affording more profit than wheat or barley. The common sort is sown on one ploughing, either from lay or stubble ; and seldom is rolled. The potatoe-oat pays amply for additional tillage, may be sown later, and ripens earlier. Its treatment resembles that of barley. Since its introduction, the Poland oat, which has a thicker husk, and is liable to shake, has given place to it. Five or six bushels may be stated as the usual allowance of seed ; but it is observed that five bushels on the uplands afford as thick a plant as six near the shore. The produce per acre from four to eight bolls of six bushels. The latter quantity is esteemed a good crop ; but in favourable seasons, ten bolls of potatoe-oats have been obtained on lands in good condition. The straw and chaff are consumed by the stock ; and what is grown on lay land, having grass at the bottom, is held little inferior to coarse meadow hay.

Great part of this crop is consumed at home in horse-food. When in constant employ, a peck a day is given

them at two meals; with cut straw in three meals, wetted in the manger. Oatmeal is used by the lower classes for pottage, which is made by boiling the meal in water. In this operation it imbibes more water than barley-meal, and is made thicker than ordinary water-gruel. It is eaten with milk, and forms the usual morning repast of the lower classes. This dish appears also to be in general use in the north of England, and in Scotland, and is by no means unpalatable. Some persons also bake the meal into bread, in the same mode as the barley meal. The oat-cakes are either thick or thin, according to the fineness of the sifting of the meal, and preserve good for a month. These are reckoned amongst luxuries; being dearer than the barley-cakes, they appear less frequently in the cottager's stores.

The present price of common oats is about 20s. of potatoe oats, about 22s. or 24s. per boll of six bushels, weighing from 32 to 40lb.

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#### SECTION VIII.—PEASE.

SOWING pease in course, as a crop, is only practised in the northern district, where the soil is more adapted to their growth, and where they prove better boilers than in the south. More white than grey are sown. Neither drilling, dibbling, nor rolling is practised: nor is sufficient attention given to weeding. The application of lime to this plant is thought to prevent their boiling well. The time of sowing is from the beginning of March to the end of April; the quantity of seed, from a bushel and a half to three bushels per acre, and the depth two or three inches. Harvesting is performed by the sickle: sheaves are made and formed in heaps of ten or twelve each: the produce extremely



variable, in some years 40 bushels per acre of clean sound pease have been obtained ; in others, scarcely the seed has been returned, and that a bad sample. The straw is used as fodder, and for littering stock ; the stubbles treated as other spring-crops, but rarely thought to afford a sufficiently prepared seed-bed for wheat. Pease bear a steady price of 8s. per bushel ; are seldom, if ever, employed as an ingredient in bread making.

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#### SECTION IX.—BEANS.

THOUGH beans have been found among the best preparations for wheat, and afford an opportunity of cleaning the land, by ploughing the intervals and hand-hoeing the rows, better than is afforded by any other spring-sown crop, yet they are not here in general use. The moist weather, which closes the insular harvest, has occasioned the loss of one or two crops, and deters others from pursuing ill fortune. One farmer persists in their cultivation on a small scale ; and vends among his neighbours the surplus of his produce beyond his own consumption. In 1811, but two other instances of the field culture of beans fell under the Reporter's observation, each on a diminutive scale, but neither of them unpromising.

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#### SECTION X.—TARES.

SOME few attempts to grow winter tares have failed either from the late period of their being sown, peculiarly unfavourable seasons, or from deception in the seed : most probably from the latter cause. This

valuable plant is here seldom sown, and prejudices against it almost universal are entertained. When a sample of seed is hereafter procured, on which dependance can be placed as genuine, if it prospers, and matures its seed in the island, some benefit to its agriculture, by the introduction of probably the most feeding spring-plant, will be conferred by the importer. Spring tares are frequent: the produce is usually consumed by working horses, and given as a mid-day bait. Tares are found useful in affording a supply of food between the first and second cutting of clover and ray-grass. No observations have been made on their properties in soiling, so as to ascertain their comparative profit, or the additional quantity of muck produced. A small portion is sometimes set off for seed; but for the most part it is imported. Making them into hay in this climate has been, very properly, rarely attempted. For cattle-fattening, no experiment is known to have been made; nor has salt been employed in their preservation.

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#### SECTION XI.—LENTILS.

LENTILS are here known but by name; and buckwheat very rarely has been sown.

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#### SECTION XII.—TURNIPS.

ABOUT thirty years have elapsed since the introduction of turnips as an article of field culture in this island. At present it is extending, but not in the degree they merit. They are sown in all soils, except in those imperfectly drained; always in ridges, never broad-cast.

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Before winter, the land receives one ploughing, and two or three in spring, is well harrowed, rolled, and cleaned between the tilths. Early in June, it is ready for drawing the ridges, which are from two to three feet asunder. The manure is then led in ; compost is preferred ; and where lime is mixed, the effect is considered favorable. The single drill is universally used in depositing the seed, which is done in moist weather, or late in the evenings. About two pounds of seed are used by the acre, and the different sorts of field-turnips sown. Showers almost always take place here in the end of June.

In seasons of unusual drought, if the land be also in a dry state, vacancies certainly take place in the rows ; occasionally the caterpillar makes his ravages in this island ; but the fly never. When the leaves are well formed, a light plough, with one horse, takes a little mould from the sides of the ridges, and the hand-hoes are applied, thinning the plants to about nine inches asunder. At a fortnight's interval, they receive a second hand-hoeing, intended merely to chop out, where the plants are double, which is soon finished. As soon as the plants are recovered, and get upright, by some farmers a light furrow is thrown towards them ; and before harvest, they receive another earthing with the plough. By others, the scarifier, or triangular harrow, is passed through the intervals, as it is supposed that the earthing up to the plant is often injurious. The mould gathered up to the root perhaps encourages the top, and diminishes the size of the bulb. For the most part this crop is drawn to fatten cattle, and for milch-cows in the house. In some dry grounds, young stock are served with turnips in an adjoining field, never on the land where they grew ; nor are they dedicated to sheep-feed, at least not generally. The quantity of rain falling at that season rendering the ground poachy, the defect of

hurdles, and the want of market for so many fat sheep at once, prevent the application of the turnip to its usual and most valuable purpose. Sheep of the Manks breed have, besides, a disrelish for turnips, and several attempts to fat them with this root are reported to have been unsuccessful; probably from its being given to sheep taken at once from the mountain in a state of starving, without the precaution being observed of drawing the root a few days before it was used, in order to diminish its succulence. No particular mode of storing and preserving turnips has been put into practice. The crop following them is thought by some farmers to exceed that following potatoes; and the reason is assigned of the land's admitting a ploughing or two later, and more perfect cleaning. Others hold just the opposite opinion. As no comparative experiments have been carefully made and registered, this question, which produces much controversy, must be left undecided.

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#### SECTION XIII.—COLE SEED.

SOME experiments have been here made in the culture of this plant, used as cattle-feed between turnips and the growth of grasses, but as yet to no extent, though the opinion entertained of it is favorable. No attempt to save the seed has been made; nor is it to be wished that there should, the climate being ill adapted to its maturing or preservation.

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#### SECTION XIV.—CABBAGES.

A trial of cabbages has been made by different individuals, but the continual rains in winter injured the

hardier sorts, and they appear to have given way to turnips. They were planted in ridges, but wider than those of turnips; were hoed in the same way, having one ploughing for earthing up, and two hand-hoeings. They were cut and carried off, and before cleaning the land for the ensuing crop, the sheep consumed the sprouts. No particular effect of exhausting the land was noticed.

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#### SECTION XV.—SWEDISH TURNIPS.

No distinction is here made in the management of Swedish and common turnips, except that the former take precedence, and but of a very few days, in sowing. A greater proportion of dung is also allotted. Transplanting has been tried: admitting later tillage, and being equally productive, the practice was approved, but has not become general. These are reserved for the last consumption, and bear being housed in larger quantities than the common turnip. Peat-land is observed to be favorable to their production.

Swedes are, by one gentleman, used in considerable quantities as horse-food: they are sliced, and found to be both palatable to the animal, and to agree well with him when in full work.

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#### SECTION XVI.—KHOL-RABIE, &c.

THE khol-rabie, and other plants enumerated in the Board's instructions, are almost all unknown, with the exception of the thousand-headed cabbage, which has been tried as an article of field-culture; it was managed

as the other kinds, in three-feet ridges, at thirty inches apart, and prospered; but the gathering in so wet a climate was thought troublesome. Carrots, indeed, have also been repeatedly tried, usually in ridges, at thirty inches apart. No account of their produce has been preserved, except of one broad-cast crop in the Castle-town Vale, on strong loam. It had been merely harrowed, and most insufficiently weeded. Full one-third of the crop was stolen. The produce brought home and measured was at the rate of 130 bushels per acre. This crop was but slender; but the root was good and sound. Their culture continues, though not extensively; the soil in general being considered as too stony for their production.

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#### SECTION XVII.—POTATOES.

THIS valuable root, appearing on the table of all ranks of people nearly every day in the year, and constituting the principal part of the sustenance of the humbler classes, is universally cultivated. The manure raised on the farm is, by the most numerous class of cultivators, almost exclusively devoted to potatoes: hence probably arises the comparative neglect of turnips, as it is only on the larger farms, and principally in the vicinity of Douglas, that due attention is paid to the latter.

Whether the soil is wrought by plough or spade, whether its quality be good or indifferent, when well manured the potatoe every where thrives. Frequently coarse loam produces the sweetest potatoes. In rough, heathy, and peat land, where the staple is a spade-graft deep, they are found the cheapest method of commencing improvements. Lazy-beds are there, and in coarse

bottoms, much preferred. The manure is spread at the rate of from fifty to eighty single-horse cart loads per acre, in the month of April, on beds, here called butts, from nine to twelve feet wide, with intervals of from two to three feet. The potatoe-cuttings are then placed on the manure, and covered with the earth dug out of the intervals. Sometimes the manure is ploughed in, and the sets placed with a dibble, then slightly covered. When the plants begin to appear, a second covering out of the same interval is given: they are then hoed once or twice, 'till the stems become sufficiently luxuriant to cover the ground. The mode formerly most in use was to trench under the dung, with the spade, eight or ten inches deep; then set with the dibble, and keep the land at the surface-loose by the hoe. Ridging, with from 24 to 30 inches, sometimes three feet intervals, with single rows, is now the most prevailing method; occasionally with double rows, with five feet and a half intervals. The land is prepared as for turnips; being, however, so much earlier wanted, it is seldom in such good order. Another method is to plough in the manure in wide lands, dibble the sets twelve inches apart, in rows of three feet distance, and afterwards manage entirely with the hoe. In the parishes in which fern abounds, potatoes are raised by its assistance in the following method. In the month of July, butts of the usual dimensions, and with the usual intervals, are traced on grass land designed for next year's potatoes. The fern-plant, being then in full luxuriance, is cut, brought home, and spread on these butts, to the height of about six or eight inches. There it remains during the autumn, winter, and 'till the season for planting potatoes in the spring. The grass shooting up in the mass of fern, in some measure secures it from being blown away. In the mean time, the intervals between

the butts are ploughed. The sets, when prepared, are laid on the fern, covered by the spade from the intervals with earth in the usual manner, and occasionally a sprinkling of lime is laid on the fern, at other times on the butts, between the first and second earthings. It is thought that potatoes raised with fern are superior in quality, and not much inferior in quantity, to those raised by manure; and that in the succeeding crop of barley, little, if any, distinction can be traced between that which follows potatoes, raised by means of fern, and in the ordinary methods. In place of fern, furze-tops are occasionally used in the spring in the same manner and with the same effect. Both these modes are borrowed from the Irish.

It is always usual to cut the seed into sets, except in scarce years, when small potatoes are planted, cutting off a slice. Many different species are in use. In the early part of the year, the kidney, and round potatoes are preferred, the black are found most fit for general use, and most abundant; and the apple sort, though least productive, are valued on account of their preserving well, and being excellent for the table from the beginning of April 'till July. A new potatoe has recently been introduced of a pale red colour, called the Cork-red; and probably originating in Ireland. It is of a large size, good flavor, and preserves well. The flower also is pale red, inclining to purple, which soon drops off, and during the four years of their being cultivated by the gentleman who introduced them, not one apple has succeeded. His crop of 1810, planted under unfavourable circumstances, in four feet ridges and single rows, spread so much as completely to cover the intervals, and produced nearly 15 ton per acre. When the potatoes are a few weeks above ground, it is usual to sprinkle over the butts or rows with fresh lime, in the



proportion of 150 or 180 bushels on the acre. The effect of this application is thought to be an improvement in the mealiness and bulk of the root. It is followed by the triangular harrow between the rows, which cleans and pulverizes the soil. If sea-weed be applied fresh to the potatoe as manure, it is found to communicate its taste to this root; but, if previously reduced to compost by lime and other additions, sea-weed is reckoned amongst its most valuable assistants.

In some instances, where the black sole or black rock has appeared in fields cultivated in the lazy-bed method, after raising the earth in the trench, and throwing it on the butts, the black-rock has been taken up in the trenches, and carried wholly away.

The root is taken up with three-tined forks: on the butts this is well performed, and the ground broken fine. In the ridges, a light furrow from each side is sometimes taken, and the remainder dug with forks. This is quicker, but not so clean work. When house-room cannot be given, the potatoes are secured in heaps, covered with straw six inches thick; afterwards with a body of earth a foot thick at the sides, two feet at top, well pressed and closed with the back of the spade.

The produce varies with the quality and condition of the land, and the season. Potatoes are sold by the boll of sixteen up-heaped pecks. On lazy-beds, in coarse land, thirty bolls per acre is considered a fair return; off the ploughed land, 40 bolls; but from 80 to 100 bolls have been obtained from ridges well managed. Potatoes form the principal article in the diet of the poor; and are also used for horses, cows, fattening cattle, and particularly for swine, which are chiefly reared by the aid of this root. To sheep, they have never been given. Steaming and boiling have had some trifling trial. For cattle, they are often sliced; for horses given with cut

straw, and sometimes a little salt sprinkled over them. When cattle, fattening with turnips, cloy of that food, potatoes are given them with good effect, 'till their appetite for turnips returns. Drying potatoes for keeping has not been practised, nor have starch or bread been manufactured from them, at least not in any considerable quantities.

The value of potatoes used as cattle-feed, of course increases as the spring advances, but it has been observed that they shrink in measure. A quantity, which when taken up measured 40 boll, has been found to reach but 36, when remeasured in April.

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#### SECTION XVIII.—CLOVER.

CLOVERS are generally cultivated. The seed is sown with a mixture of ray-grass, or white-hay seeds (*Holcus lanatus*), and trefoil, on young wheat with a spring harrowing; or with oats, or barley, at their seed time. It thrives well with flax; twelve pounds of red clover seed is the quantity sown on an acre with ray-grass; proportionably less if accompanied with other small seeds. Its consumption is usually in hay. No comparative experiments between the effect of feeding off or mowing, or on soiling, are known to have been made. Some attempts have been made to save the seed of red clover, and although the cleaning it was ill understood, the seed produced well. Saving white clover-seed has not been attempted. It is indigenous; and when sown, its seed is always mixed with the red, when pasture for any length of time is intended. Clover-lays, when sown with wheat, give a clean heavy sample; but they are here thought not to produce grain so large, or to be

so productive, as in more pulverized tillage. The ground being rarely sufficiently harrowed, numerous plants must necessarily perish.

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#### SECTION XIX.—TREFOIL.

In laying down with clover, trefoil seed is often intermixed; but no instance is known of this seed being sown alone.

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#### SECTION XX.—RAY-GRASS.

To this plant the Manks farmer appears much attached; in land laid down for hay or pasture, it generally bears a part; in the latter it disappears in a few years, its place being supplied by natural grasses. As long as the plant is worth cutting, the scythe is employed; it is then surrendered to the stock, and furnishes by its early spring-shoot a valuable pasture for sheep and lambs. One bushel of clean seed, with clover and other seeds, is the allowance per acre. Equally weighty seed, but not dressed, collected from stable-hay, is often sown from two to four bushels per acre. The Manks farmer is thoroughly convinced of the injurious consequences to his land arising from successive hay crops of ray, but thinks he cannot substitute any other plant which will assist his clover in furnishing hay of equal quality. It is probable that the plant is suffered to mature its seed too much before it meets the scythe. An experiment was made on a newly sown field, which had been divided into two parts; when the ray-grass was just coming into flower, half the field was cut, and

the cutting repeated. The other half was heavily stocked the whole season. In the following year the mown portion carried the best grass.

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SECTION XXI.—SAINFOIN, &c.

A GENERAL opinion prevails that this invaluable plant does not prosper north of York. Some few attempts have been made to raise it in this island; hitherto they have been abortive. Another is now making near the town of Ramsey, which, it is hoped, may be attended with success. If the climate of the island be not decisively unfavorable, it contains soils which seem well suited to sainfoin. Dry loams, on lime-stone, and deep bodies of schistus, broken into small fragments, and covered with silty mould about eight inches in depth. Each of these would give admission to the penetrating root of this plant, and on these soils no water rests.

The other plants, with regard to which enquiry is directed, are not usually cultivated here. Burnet has, indeed, in one instance, been sown, and succeeded. In April 1809, 6lb. of seed per acre, sown with clover and ray-grass, on spring-corn, produced a plant, which in the following winter wore a promising appearance; but the pasture has since been kept hard stocked, both winter and summer, and had no attention paid to it.

Wild hops grow luxuriantly, and furnish flowers with which small brewings of beer have been made, it is said, successfully. But the cultivation of the hop in so windy a climate, and where poles are not to be procured, is not likely to be attempted.

## SECTION XXII.—HEMP AND FLAX.

SMALL patches of hemp are seen in gardens and low moist bottoms, belonging to cottagers, but of course of small extent; nor does any thing particular occur to mention in its management. The male hemp is separately gathered and exposed to the rain and dews. That so little attention is paid to this plant, is the more to be regretted, as the import for the use of their fishing boats and other purposes is a heavy and increasing tax on the island. The small quantity of Manks hemp raised is usually converted into nets, sold at the same price as those manufactured of foreign hemp, but much preferred. The islanders never have attempted to spin and weave their own into cloth.

Flax is more generally sown, though seldom in any considerable quantities together: Many farmers and substantial cottagers sow as much as their family occasions require; depositing the seed, at the rate of about 18 gallons to the acre; often after potatoes, as early in March and April as the land admits culture. In situations where earlier tillage cannot be applied, the sowing is sometimes delayed 'till May. This plant requires complete pulverization of the soil, and is therefore considered as a good nurse for grass-seeds, to which the subsequent pulling of the flax communicates the benefit of a hoeing. Sufficient attention is by no means paid here to the weeding. When pulled green, from which the finest thread is produced, it is first tied into small sheaves, then thrown into water, in which it is kept down by weights for about a week or ten days, 'till found to be sufficiently steeped. Ponds are preferred to running streams for this purpose; but if the water, in which the flax is immersed, have in it any impregna-

tion of peat, this process is tedious, and the maceration is found to proceed more slowly. It is safer to give too little than too much watering, as in the former case, the defect may be supplied by keeping the flax for a longer period of time afterwards on the ground. When it is thought to have remained in the water a sufficient length of time, it is taken out and spread on a pasture, 'till it is found by examination in a state dry enough for sending to one of the mills, of which there are several on different streams in the island. When the plant is left to attain maturity before pulling, the seed is saved by rippling the heads by means of an iron comb. These are rendered perfectly dry by spreading on a floor, and in the sun; the stems are then watered in the usual manner. Flax is also allowed to stand 'till dead-ripe, then pulled and set in small sheaves 'till thoroughly withered. It is then stacked as corn, thrashed in the spring, watered, and managed in the usual manner. When flax is permitted to ripen its seed, it exhausts the land more than wheat, and perhaps more than hemp itself; and under circumstances the least unfavorable, this plant restores to the soil which produces it nothing as manure. Its cultivation, therefore, and peculiarly the raising its seed, seems best adapted to countries underpeopled; where land is rich as well as plentiful. Home-saved seed is not in equal esteem with that imported. The plant growing from the former proves often spotted, the effect of which continues on the thread and on the linen. The head of the plant also spreads more into branches, and consequently the waste in dressing is more considerable than that of the plant produced from foreign seed.

As the plots of land dedicated to flax are of small extent, and the labor attending its culture and manufacture almost wholly domestic, any statement of expenses or

profit would be merely conjectural. The cottagers occasionally hire land in good tilth, for the purpose of growing flax, the rent of which they pay in labour. For the land and tillage they are charged at the rate of £6. per acre, or thereabouts, by the farmer. It is thought a tolerable crop, when eight pounds of manufactured flax are the produce of a quart of seed; but double that quantity, and upwards, is sometimes obtained. Though little flax is sold in retail, the present price in the rough may be stated at one shilling; heckled at one shilling and sixpence per pound. No instance is known of flax succeeding flax on the same spot.

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#### SECTION XXIII.—LIQUORICE, &c.

THE liquorice plant is indigenous in the rich sands, at the northern extremity, and the north-west shore of the island. It pervades the sheep-pastures, and that animal is said to thrive by browsing on it. No attempt to cultivate, or manufacture its juice, has been made. Camomile, carraway, and coriander, are not known beyond the garden; nor has the cultivation of teasels been yet introduced.

## CHAP. VIII.

GRASS-LAND.  

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## SECTION I.—MEADOWS.

TO each considerable farm is usually attached a portion of natural meadow, often skirting a small rivulet, with a sufficient fall for drainage. Little attention in former days was paid to the management of these meadows. Young cattle were kept on them 'till May; no manure ever found its way in that direction; and the grass was rendered coarse, and soured by stagnant water. Considerable improvement has been effected on each of these heads; on the latter, particularly, stone-filled drains have been in some places constructed, which are durable, and, when sunk to a sufficient depth, draw well. For the first year after they are dug, they are kept open, in order that the effect of the drain may be seen, and an opportunity afforded to deepen or draw others in different directions, if necessary. It is of the more importance in mountainous situations to save the meadow-hay with all possible dispatch, as the autumnal rains, frequently setting in early, pour down with great violence into the vallies, bringing destruction on the hay-crop if abroad. The mowers who are to be procured are generally decrepid men, their juniors being usually attracted by the prospect of greater gain in the herring-fishery. From this cause, as well as from the precariousness of the weather at the time of the hay-harvest, it is usually tedious. The haycocks in the field



## CHAP. IX.

### GARDENS AND ORCHARDS.

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**IMPORTANT** as this object is to the health and comfort of the inhabitants of every country, and ample as are the returns for the share of capital employed in horticulture, in this island, it is too much neglected. To the houses of some few of the gentry, indeed, good gardens are attached. One in particular, with walls, lofty, extensive, and well clothed, is remarkably productive in all kinds of fruit adapted to such a climate. Some orchards there also are, which bear well; but no cyder has yet been manufactured.

In 1810, when the orchards in the eastern part of England suffered nearly a total failure, the fruit in the few Manks orchards was most abundant. The surface of the island is so uneven, as to furnish every where sheltered spots in favored exposures, where fruit-trees would undoubtedly prosper. In every instance where the trial has been made, success has attended it.

A nursery ground has, in the course of the present year, 1811, been established in the neighbourhood of Douglas, to which it is hoped due encouragement may be given at its commencement. The hazard, delays, and uncertainty of a sea-voyage have hitherto presented a serious obstacle to the formation of orchards, which the facility of obtaining fruit-trees at their own door will in future remove.

## CHAP. X.

## WOODS AND PLANTATIONS.

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IT is still more to be regretted that this head also presents a blank, which the present generation seem little disposed to fill up. The first impression made on the mind of a stranger, by the generally denuded state of the country, without planting and without hedges, is indeed melancholy. It needs not the imagination of a Brown, or of a Ripley, to represent in idea the difference in scenery which this little isle would present, if the horizon were skirted by a fringe of wood, and the fore-ground ornamented by the waving-grove, occasionally concealing its mountain streams and clustered cottages. But it is not in point of ornament, or of shelter alone, that the deficiency is to be lamented: great and serious evils to agriculture result from the great scarcity of timber, impeding improvement in its progress at every step. All is to be imported; much must therefore be deficient. What the Manks farmer cannot supply by stone or by straw, remains often undone. For instance, there is not a stile in the island. Stone steps are built by the more opulent; the poorer farmer substitutes a few rude slates, in an oblique row, projecting from his sod-fence, the fate of which may be easily anticipated. The ox is wrought not by the bow and yoke, but by a collar of oat-straw. The same material, twisted into rope, and then woven into a pair of wallets of a square form, is slung across the horse, and

are sometimes protected from the gusts of wind by a mode apparently peculiar to the islanders. After making the cock, two ropes are twisted of the hay, drawn tightly across each other over the top, and the ends thrust into the side of the cock, near the bottom.

A statement of the medium expense attending the making and saving hay has been before given.

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#### SECTION II.—PASTURES.

SPOTS of good pasturage, adapted to fattening cattle, are not infrequent, but too often overstocked; the rent, when lett separately, is from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* per acre; in the immediate neighbourhood of the towns, still higher.

One acre is calculated to fat a beast of their own breed, weighing, when fat, from 35 to 40 stone.

There are no lands appropriated to the dairy exclusively, although the price paid in the island for milk and butter, appears tempting.

The precious cocksfoot (*Dactylis glomerata*) abounds throughout the island; in the marl districts with great vigor.

No pasture, except the mountainous heathy portion, is dedicated to sheep exclusively.

With wheat, barley, oats, or flax, grass seeds are sown, either with a view to hay, or to be followed by permanent pasture. They are, however, rarely sown in order to remain in pasture, and still more rarely broken up after the first crop. When sown for hay, one bushel of ray-grass, and 12*lb.* of red clover seed, is the quantity sown per acre; when for hay, with subsequent pasture, from 7*lb.* to 8*lb.* of red; 3*lb.* or 4*lb.* of white clover;

plantations near the root of the mountain, which have prospered. It is to be regretted that the Scotch fir should have found a permanent place amongst them. The ash also appears too delicate a plant for this stormy climate. In consequence, probably, of the indispensable utility of its timber, which is wanted for almost all the implements of a farmer, ash has been the favorite tree. If planted at all, it should not have been ranged in single rows, or in a narrow belt, where the wind constantly affects its towering head, but should have been sheltered by numerous brethren in a grove, which should have been thinned off as their heads became capable of standing the pelting of the winds.

In a more recent plantation, near the town of Douglas, these errors have been avoided. The larch here predominates; and its growth already proves that the soil and situation are congenial to it. Fifteen or twenty acres have been planted contiguous to this residence. This plantation, and others around the houses of other gentlemen near that town, promise to confer on the valley of Douglas, the same superiority in embellishment, which it possesses in productiveness; though neither in extent, in natural fertility, nor in beauty, is it equal to other valleys which the island comprizes.

Several spots in this island are not only fitted by nature for planting, but they seem fit for nothing else; their rocky and abrupt situation precluding the labor of the husbandman, and affording scanty pasture. What are at present objects of deformity, might speedily become, by means of planting, both profitable and ornamental. The pinaster possesses the valuable property of resisting the sea-breezes, even with a western exposure, and on the very margin of the ocean. A small island in the Bay of Kirkudbright, near St. Mary's Isle,

the beautiful domain of the Earl of Selkirk, on the opposite coast of Scotland, is planted with this tree, which thrives where probably any other would have perished. It has prospered also when planted in this island. No tree properly adapted to the different soils has been tried, which has not succeeded; some promising to attain considerable magnitude if not early cut down, which is here too frequently practised. Too little care in thinning them, as their tops come into close contact, is every where observable.

The Board's injunctions to report the dimensions of any extraordinary trees are not in this district likely to impose much labor on a Reporter. It happens, however, that an arbutus, which stands in the plantation first alluded to, has attained a bulk said to be unusual except in its native soil. Its girth round the stem reaches five feet, within less than an inch, when it breaks out into seven large branches. The height of the single stem is but about two feet; and as it is encompassed by forest-trees, it is not healthy, and likely soon to perish.

Near the same residence, the myrtle grows in the open air, not being housed throughout the winter.

## CHAP. XI.

### WASTES.

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#### SECTION I.—MOUNTAIN.

ONE third of the island, at least, is at present uninclosed, and mountainous sheep-walk. Some part of this is undoubtedly reclaimable; but the stony, bleak, and sterile soil of other parts will for ever preclude its being disturbed by the plough, or its application to any better purpose than that to which it is at present dedicated, unless to planting. A portion of the waste remaining uninclosed, and open to the commonable sheep, is already private property, but not hitherto thought by the owner of it worth the expense of fencing. Their property in it is undoubted, and it may be reclaimed when they think proper. A considerable proportion also consists of bog-earth, with a slight cover of verdure, and of land infested with water, the due draining of which must precede any attempt at improvement. There is almost in every part of it a sufficient fall, and in general a rapid fall for future drainage. In some instances, the deep open ditches, which must be sunk for the purpose of draining, may supersede the necessity of fences, in the event of a future appropriation of the waste.

The sheep by which the waste is at present pastured in the summer are, as it has been observed, the property of farmers resident in the more distant parts of the island, as well as of those in the immediate

vicinity of the mountain. The few sheep kept there during the winter are the property of the neighbouring little owners ; who also take the opportunity of turning in inferior colts and yearling cattle, whilst a bite of grass remains.

The inconveniences attending a common without stint, appear to have been long since perceived in the island. An insular statute of 1691, notices that cottlers, intack, and cottage-holders, as well in market towns as elsewhere, keep cattle, sheep, and other live-stock, for the food of which they have not sufficient grass in summer, or provision in winter ; that by this means, such people become trespassers and pilferers. A standing jury is therefore directed to be impanelled, to enquire and inspect what provision of grass and fodder for their cattle is made by this description of persons. On the jury's report that the fodder is inadequate, their cattle unprovided for are ordered to be sold ; and the price paid to the owner, after deducting a shilling in the pound for the trouble of the coroner.

In 1748, the legislature again instructs this jury, (to whom the appellation of a *fodder jury* appears to be given) strictly to do their duty. Farmers, as well as the inferior orders of the peasantry, are put under their jurisdiction, and ordered, under a penalty, to furnish an account of their stock : but the duration of this act is limited to three years. On account of the inquisitorial powers exercised by the fodder jury, it became unpopular, and is now rarely, if ever, convened. If resorted to in years of scarcity only, when the pressure of famine had commenced, for the purpose of confiscating the live stock of the poorer classes of peasantry, the injury done to them would much outweigh the benefit to the country.

As the elevation of this part of the island is not

greater than that of some parts of Scotland, where sheep range throughout the winter, the experiment is about to be made of keeping on a considerable intack, a whole flock during the winter. Though the quantity of snow which falls in the island be not so considerable as in Scotland, yet the mists are probably more dense and frequent, as well as more injurious to the health of an animal less patient of moisture than of cold.

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## SECTION II.—MARSHES.

THE tracts of fenny land are not at present considerable in extent. The largest, which is in the northern division of the island, was anciently a morass, but the fall to the sea being sufficient, it appears to have been cleared of stagnant water, by means of a single open drain, about the termination of the 17th century.\*

By the insular law, a provision is made for the appointment of commissioners, with jurisdiction over the drainage of fenny land. The ditches and drains, by means of which a redundance of water is carried off, are directed by this law to be kept clear by each person successively, beginning at the lowest part, through whose land they pass. In case of neglect or refusal, the work may indeed be done by the Commissioners' orders, but no penalty is inflicted on the defaulter, besides payment of the expenses incurred in carrying the drain through his land, on his refusal; with one shilling a day to the person who directs and carries on the work.

At present, July 1811, the drain above alluded to appears brimful, and in a weedy foul state.

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\* Sacheverel's Survey, 1702, p. 3.



In the southern vale of the island a tract of meadow land, but much less considerable in extent and value, has also been formerly relieved from stagnant water by means of a simple drain of the same description. This was formed many years ago, and leads to the sea at a short distance, with an ample fall ; but it remains in a state equally neglected. Great part of this meadow is deemed capable of receiving the benefit of irrigation.

## CHAP. XII.

### IMPROVEMENTS.

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#### SECTION I.—DRAINING.

THE peculiarly necessary operation of draining is certainly too often neglected, as well as imperfectly understood. From the vertical position of the strata in the elevated part of the island, it must be allowed that draining is there attended with difficulty, as it becomes necessary to cut the spot where the springs arise. In the low lands, hollow draining has been long practised, and still goes on. The depth is usually from two feet and a half to three feet: the breadth about twelve inches. The drains are sometimes left hollow, and have their sides and top lined with flat stones; more frequently are filled with small stones to a foot or ten inches of the surface, and covered with straw or pared sward. Those of the latter description, in a course of years, sometimes are choked by sand. In order to obtain a fall, greater depth is occasionally requisite; Drains are then constructed of the width of two-spade grafts, and are then usually provided with side walls, and covered with flat stones.

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#### SECTION II.—PARING AND BURNING.

THIS is an operation in which the Manks husbandman has no skill. He imports from the north of England

adventurers, with their tools. On these men he places confidence, and that confidence is generally abused. This operation costs about 2*l.* 2*s.* or 2*l.* 4*s.* per acre : is never practised but on bringing in coarse rough land. The paring-spade generally cuts from one inch and a half, to two inches and a half deep ; the plough, two inches and a half at least, and can pare full an acre a day. The work is done from April to August ; and if the quality of the soil admit wheat, it is sown early. The inferiority of the soil usually induces the improver to turn in the ashes, and await a spring crop. These lands are usually laid down to grass as soon as the furrows can be reduced to proper tilth, with an application of lime alone, or dung, or both. Where too many white crops have not been extracted, the improver always has reason to be satisfied with the result.

Part of the fertile vale in the northern district, approaching the stream at the mountain foot, is bottomed by peat of considerable depth. The meadow on its surface is sometimes broken up and tilled by cottagers in the following manner. The field is divided into butts of about twelve feet wide, as if for potatoes, intervals of about three feet being left in grass ; the butts are first ploughed up. In the spring, two-thirds of the part left in grass is turned up by the spade, burnt in heaps, and the ashes spread over the butts as equally as may be. The butts are then again ploughed, and immediately sown with oats. In the succeeding spring, the remaining third part of the sward is in its turn raised, burnt, and the ashes spread. The whole is then leveled by the aid of the spade ; a second crop of oats is taken and laid down with grass seeds.

This mode of culture, the cottager has probably been induced to adopt, in consequence of the necessary appropriation of all his muck to the culture of potatoes.

The arable which he requires is thus made to furnish the means of its own improvement. It is not admitted that the staple of the soil suffers from this treatment, though it is to be feared that there are instances of three, instead of two successive white crops, being taken in this mode of culture.

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### SECTION III.—MANURING.

*Marl.*—In the northern division of the island, this excellent manure is found in great abundance, at the distance of a few feet from the surface. At the time of Sacheverel's publication, in 1703, the Manks farmers are said, "not to have had the skill, or purses, to lay it out on their grounds." Experience has now convinced them of its value. The preference is given to that of a dusky reddish colour, with blue veins, over that of a white cast. From the month of June to September, two-horse carts, containing from 15 to 25 bushels each, are employed in transporting from the pit to the field the marl, which is laid on at about the quantity of 3300 bushels per acre, on light land; and 2800 per acre on those of stronger staple. The heaps lie 'till winter commences, when the marl is spread and ploughed in. The first crop taken by the Manks farmer is generally pease; barley succeeds; and so alternately pease and barley are taken for about nine crops, when the land is laid down with oats and grass seeds. On land, where it appears that the pease produced are not good boilers, oats are substituted; and in like manner, alternate with barley, 'till the land becomes exhausted. It is then laid down with grass-seeds, and pastured 'till thought fit again to undergo the same treatment.

An instance is recollected of eighteen crops being thus taken without cessation. It is to the native farmers alone, that these practices are imputed; not to the few from other countries settled in this fertile vale. The lands occupied by the latter do not receive this castigation, but evidently appear to be treated in a husband-like manner. Turnips, with other fallow-crops, with manure and due hoeing, intervene; when laid down to grass they are in heart, and are not ungrateful for this merciful treatment.

Proprietors of estates occasionally let out fields for the purpose of cropping in the former method; and divide the spoil with the occupier. Marl is also sold by some owners at the price of 3*d.* or 4*d.* per double horse cart-load.

A bushel of marl, unheaped, weighs about 112lb.

The lapse of three years is here thought necessary, after marl is laid on the land, before it is sufficiently incorporated to favor the production of wheat. When this crop is taken, it is in the following succession:—1st, peas; 2d, barley; 3d, oats; 4th, potatoes; 5th, wheat; 6th, barley, with grasses; 7th, clover and ray-grass hay; 8th, hay, or pasture; 9th, wheat; 10th, potatoes. Or, 1st, oats or peas; 2d, barley or oats; 3d, wheat. Or thus, 1st, peas; 2d, barley with grasses; 3d, hay or pasture; 4th, wheat.

The barley produced on light land marled is of superior quality, and much coveted by the brewer.

Deep on the clay-cliff, which forms the edge of this coast, is found a layer of marl; as the cliff is undermined and precipitated into the sea, some clods of marl are found to adhere for a time, and resist the action of the sea; by its agitation they become rounded; and some persons are of opinion that during the immersion of these clods, they become hardened by degrees, and

converted into limestone. On the same coast, rounded fragments of stone are certainly found, resembling, as certainly, in their external appearance rounded lumps of marl. Other stones are found with small quartzose, and other pebbles imbedded on their surface, the adhesion of which was evidently effected whilst the stone remained in a soft state; but no person has yet discovered a lump of marl in the intermediate state, whilst its core, or any part of the lump, remained soft, and other part was hard, or hardening. It is also to be observed, that in the cliff, on the sea-shore, single limestones of considerable weight are occasionally found; and that in the marl-pits themselves, fragments of limestone appear of sizes from that of a human head, to that of a walnut. Sea-shells also are occasionally found, but not large in size, or in considerable quantities.

*Lime.*—The use of this powerful stimulant has been long known to the Manks farmer; having been taught by a Mr. Greenhalgh, who was governor of the island under the Derby family, from 1640 to 1651. The southern end of the island produces lime-stone as abundantly as the northern does marl. From the beginning of April, 'till the fall of autumnal rains impedes the carriage of the lime, the kilns draw daily. Carts are in constant employ in leading it away, even to the distance of eighteen miles, for the purposes of agriculture. At the kilns which adjoin the sea, boats are also constantly in requisition during the summer months, conveying cargoes to the different creeks and ports of the island. Limestone is also conveyed in carts to the central parts of the island, where it is burnt by means of peat, in earthen kilns, near the spots to which it is destined.

The usual application of lime is in the quantity of from twenty to fifty barrels of quick lime, each containing six Winchester bushels, laid on sward. This the

native farmer ploughs in, and takes grain crops as long as the 'produce will repay seed, labour, and charges; usually seven crops of oats and barley. The land then remains from four to six years, 'till it is so far recovered as to afford a hope of carrying again grain crops;—and then,—da capo. Some of the small farmers have begun to sow two or three bushels of hay-seed, and four pounds of red or white clover, before the land becomes quite exhausted: after taking one crop of hay, it is dedicated to pasture. The effect of lime is deemed to endure twelve crops, if in the intermediate time a few slight dressings of manure be given.

Though the quantity of lime applied does not usually exceed 300 bushels by the acre, yet occasionally it is employed in a much larger proportion. A gentleman residing near the south-west angle of the island, where the limestone appears on the shore, and who was in a situation to enable him to burn his lime, at an easy expense, in the field to be improved, calculates having covered one particular field with above 800 bushels an acre. The soil before visible was principally sand. Since the field has been limed, it has acquired on its surface mould of a dark hue; and has ever since this extraordinary application borne excellent crops.

Considerable quantities of lime are also carted away in the summer as an ingredient in compost dung-hills. This does not seem an economical application, but it is frequent.

On grass-land, lime is applied in the month of August, in quantities of from 150 to 200 bushels per acre; also on clover after the first cutting; in each case with great advantage. The quality, as well as the quantity, of succeeding hay-crops receives considerable improvement. The effect of lime applied to pasture appears to be more permanent than on arable. The application of

fragments of limestone, or of its gravel, has not yet been tried. Chalk-beds do not exist in the island. No banks of shells, or of shell-sand, have yet been discovered; nor have gypsum or rape-dust been imported.

In the creeks and in the curvatures of bays, sea-sand is lodged in considerable quantities. In the southern part of the island, in particular, this must be composed, in some degree, of pulverized limestone, with the remains of testaceous fish, and some portion of the different species of marine vegetables reduced to putrefaction. Of late years the farmer has resorted to this store, seeking it in preference, as near low water-mark as possible, where the putrid sea-weed has communicated a blackish colour. Its weight prevents its being carted to any distance in the interior; but the farmers within two miles of the shore employ it as an ingredient in composts. This is properly applied in general to heavy land; and its effects appear in the luxuriance of the succeeding crops of grass. No application of this sea-sand alone is known to have been made either on arable or pasture.

In the same quarter of the island, and also in some creeks on the western coast, after heavy autumnal gales, sea-weed or wreck is driven up in large quantities. This is carted off with great avidity, and applied to stubbles, or lays, at the rate of about 20 or 30 ton per acre, and immediately ploughed in to rot for seed-time. Without any other dressing, spring corn is sown, and good crops are produced. Of this manure, the same abuse is made, as of marl and lime, by forcing the land with successive crops of white corn. In the present year, the ninth crop of barley, without intermission, grew on a sandy field, apparently of poor quality, dressed with sea-weed alone, which had been applied indeed each year. Its effect is admitted not to be durable.



One advantage it has, convenient to *Manks farming* : it introduces no weed ; and when employed, as it often is, in composts, it may aid in dissolving and hastening the putrefaction of the other ingredients.

Laver of a good quality is found on the southern and mid-western coasts. Some other of the marine plants are edible raw ; but are not, in any degree, used as an article of sustenance.

Soaper's waste is annually imported in considerable quantities from Dublin, and sold at prices from 10s. 6d. to 12s. per ton, of 48 bushels. It is most generally used in composts of sea-sand, earth, &c. for top-dressings ; and particularly as a preparation for wheat : The good effects are found for several successive crops.

Refuse fish and salt are spread on the land in the neighbourhood of red-herring houses, but no particular remark on their effect has been made, except that it is of short duration. In the town of Douglas, manure is collected, and 2s. 6d. paid for the double horse cart-load, though when delivered, one half the quantity, at least, proves to be but sea-sand, with which it has previously been adulterated.]

No attention has yet been paid to the comparative effects of dung applied in a fresh and in a rotten state. When led out from the yard, it is often suffered to remain eight or ten days on the field, before it is spread and covered.

The purchaser of a small farm at the mountain foot, distant from lime about twelve miles, was induced to try the effect of a mixture of oil and potash. In 1806, he purchased, at Liverpool, the dregs of whale oil, called foot-oil, at 1s. 6d. per gallon, and pot-ash at 3d. per pound. These ingredients had, at least, the merit of being portable, and their application was attended with little trouble. With the saponaceous compound

affected by their mixture, in the proportion of 8 gallons of oil to 28lb. of ash, he impregnated mould. Having in early spring ploughed three small closes, of three acres each, in March he gave them a cross ploughing, and dressed them with the compost, in the quantity above stated, to the acre. When harvest came, he was informed by his neighbours, that the crop exceeded in value any which they recollected to have grown there; yet it could not be called abundant; nor has the succeeding pasture been remarkable. The same compost he tried to three acres of potatoes; applying muck to a fourth acre in the same field. No difference whatever was discernible in the crop, which was uniformly good. The gentleman, by whom this trial was made, is satisfied that the quantity of compost was insufficient; and that had it been applied in a triple quantity, the result would have been more satisfactory. In the spot where the mixture had been made, some of the ingredients had been accidentally spilled; the effect has to this day endured in a greater luxuriance of vegetation. He has not repeated the application of this manure. The price of its ingredients has since been much enhanced; and he calculates that were triple the quantity applied, the expense would at present exceed 6*l.* per acre, which would equal that of a dressing by lime, and probably produce less effect.

An experiment is now in its progress, of which it is hoped that the result will be as successful, as the design is ingenious. Carbonat of soda, of which the value is well known in several manufactures, particularly those of soap and glass, has also the merit of being a powerful manure; sea-salt results from a combination of soda with the muriatic acid: it has long been a desideratum in chemistry to find an easy method of disengaging this acid from the basis of soda. Under

certain circumstances, lime, both in a caustic state and in that of a carbonat, has been found to produce that effect. Berthollet\* observed, that on the borders of Lake Natron, in Egypt, the sea-water flowing into the lake, and, during the summer, there stagnating, was in part decomposed by the limestone rock on which it rests; that the carbonat of lime gradually decomposed the muriat of soda; and that the carbonat of soda resulting from the double decomposition effloresced, and shot up the reeds growing on the sides of the lake, extricating itself from the other salts held in solution. When the waters subsided, these reeds are gathered and burned. From their ashes considerable quantities of soda are procured.

It seemed probable, that if any fit porous substance were introduced, forming a substratum on which the efflorescence of the carbonat of soda might take place, on bringing into contact the lime and salt in a moist state, that the purpose of the reed might be answered. It was thought that bog-earth might prove a good medium. A preparation was therefore made, in the proportion of one bushel of salt to six of lime, and intimately mixed with about 60 of bog earth. The whole was left in a mass, exposed to the weather, to facilitate the decomposition, and also for the purpose of carrying off the muriat of lime which might be produced; the latter salt being of an extremely soluble nature.

After the mass had remained about a month from the time of its first mixture, although too little rain had fallen to effect a complete solution of the salt, yet as it was wanted for a wheat-field, for which no other manure remained, and which had been left in an exhausted state, the first experiment was made on this field.

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\* Statique Chimique I. 406, Annales de Chimie.

Twenty-five acres, in part a strong loam, and the remainder a light loam, were dressed with the compost, at the rate of 30 single-horse carts, each containing 18 bushels to the acre. It was indeed feared, that if a mutual decomposition were effected, after the compost was spread, that the muriat of lime might be nearly as injurious as the carbonat of soda would be beneficial. But the former salt being carried off more speedily by the winter rains, it was hoped that the succeeding crops, at least, would reap that benefit from the compost which the present might not.

During the winter 1810-11, (which was a very wet season), the wheat went mostly off, probably in consequence of the deleterious effects of the muriat of lime. The wheat, however, recovered in the spring beyond what could have been possibly expected, and carried an uncommonly heavy ear; while the ray-grass and clover sown among it in the spring appeared to flourish greatly beyond that sown with barley in adjoining fields which had been under green crops the year preceding. On this day (3d September, 1811) it wears probably the most promising appearance of any crop in the island.

The remainder of the compost will not be applied to the ground, 'till after a full twelvemonth has elapsed from the time of its mixture. The salt is indeed dissolved, but no efflorescence is detected on the bog-earth. Some of this compost is intended to be applied as a dressing for cole; on another part of the same field, lime will be applied in order to compare the relative results. The remainder of the compost will be applied as a manure for wheat; other part of the field being dunged, and the remainder limed, in order to form a further estimate of its effects.

One attempt has been made to fertilize a small farm, left much out of condition, by means of peat-ashes. Two acres of peat-land, within a convenient distance of the farm, being part of a mountain-intack, were taken on a ten years lease. The plough raises the peat, which is gathered in heaps, and immediately burned on the spot: The ashes carted home, and spread on the land at the rate per acre of 60 double-horse cart loads, each containing about 20 bushels. The labour in ploughing, gathering, and burning, is computed to cost 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* for each improved acre; cartage to the farm 2*l.* 5*s.* The first crop is barley, with clover: the second year the clover, which is indeed uncommonly luxuriant, is twice mown, and in the following year fed off. The land is then ploughed, and sown with wheat. Potatoes mucked, succeed. To these, barley or oats, again seeded. The land is then to receive a second sprinkling of ashes of half the former quantity.

This practice has been introduced by a native of the canton of Berne, who found this small farm in a state the most foul and exhausted. Though his crops are abundant, his success has hitherto had no other consequences amongst his neighbours, than to awaken their attention to the value of the peat-land, for which larger prices are now demanded.

After the peat is completely exhausted, no better purpose can probably be pointed out, to which the spot which once produced it, can be dedicated, than that recommended by Dr. Richardson, the ingenious and worthy rector of Clonfeckle, near Moy, in Ireland. This spot of land, and others in similar circumstances, seem peculiarly adapted to the growth of his favourite grass, the *agrostis stolonifera*, termed by him *fiorin*. After levelling the spot, it is recommended simply to lay

in and cover the stolones, which never fail, even in elevated regions, to produce most weighty crops of grass, both in a green and dry state, highly relished by cattle.

On a similar spot the Doctor has himself succeeded in raising, in the present year (1811), weighty crops of fiorin.

By furnishing the proof of the facility with which soil, apparently as sterile in its nature as it is unsightly in its aspect, may be converted to a valuable purpose; by effecting the change at once, at a comparatively trifling expense, and by one operation, a considerable benefit is conferred on agriculture. This is apart from all consideration of the singularly prolific nature of the crop produced, though that fact seems also to be established by incontrovertible evidence.

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#### SECTION IV.—IRRIGATION.

MANY situations in the island are favorably situated for water-meadows; and in every direction rills in abundance descend from the higher lands. The minute and narrow division of property will often be found to stand in the way of irrigation, if ever attempts to form these meadows should become frequent. Hitherto not one has been made; but it is probable that the experiment will not much longer be delayed.

## CHAP. XIII.

## EMBANKMENTS.

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AT the only spot in this island where the sea recedes, the soil is of little value. It is fine sand and gravel, affording no materials for the erection of sea-walls. Instead of meditating conquests from the ocean, it would be fortunate for the islanders if they could devise means to prevent its annual encroachments, both on the north-east and north-west coasts of the island. The land gradually undermined, and falling into the sea, is part of their most valuable soil. The remains of ancient fences, and traces of the plough, broken off abruptly at the edge of the cliff, give dismal attestation to the truth of the tradition, that this evil is progressive. In one spot the parting cliff has disclosed the place of sepulture of the ancient Celt ; throwing in its fall the stone coffin and its contents into the sea beneath. Not the slightest attempt has hitherto been made to guard against these depredations. The mischief done in each generation has been little heeded.

It is occasioned, probably, not by the impulse of the sea acting in a direct line inward, but by what is called the *rake* of the tide ; that is, by the current passing in a line parallel with the coast, scooping out and undermining the cliff in its progress. The experiment has not yet been made of constructing frames of timber, formed by means of posts meeting in an angle at the summit, filled with stones, of the nature of those called *break-*

waters; and running to sea at right angles with the cliff. These would have the effect of breaking the force of the sidelong wave, and in time, shingle or sand would be collected and deposited on one side or other of the frame.

It is not to be expected that costly operations of this kind should be defrayed at the expense of one individual; as little, that many will voluntarily contribute; and there are not in the island any laws on this head analogous to the English law of sewers. The value of the land lost within these forty years would probably have defrayed the whole charge: but the evil is allowed to proceed. If no means of preventing it be adopted, at least none should be taken by which it may be aggravated. In the fall of the cliff, stones of great magnitude, weighing many hundred weight, are discharged. These are too ponderous to yield to the agitation of the tide, and are imbedded in smaller stones, which they preserve. The neighbouring inhabitants not having quarries of building stone within their reach, when they stand in need of any, proceed with their carts to the shore, and regularly carry off these large stones at their discretion. The smaller stones, losing the protection which the greater afforded them, are whirled away, and reduced in size and quantity by the violence of the waves. It seems probable that the water in-shore by this means becomes deeper, and the tide in its progress more destructive.



## CHAP. XIV.

### LIVE-STOCK.

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#### SECTION I.—CATTLE.

THE original Manks breed of cattle were low, deep-chested, hardy animals, of a dingy black, often with the ridge of the back, and ears, brown, or wholly of a dark brown colour, having seldom white or light coloured spots; short jointed, but not full in the hind quarter; the horn very thick at the root, and rather curving upwards. They gave rich milk, but in small quantities; were easy to feed and fat, though not of early maturity. It would seem a breed well adapted to the climate, and the then state of culture.

From the influx of a variety of other breeds, this original race is disappearing.

The produce, in the month of June, of a dairy, the cows of which approached most nearly to the indigenous breed, and which were in good pasture, proved to be eight ale quarts to each cow; the produce, in butter, one pound of 16 oz. to ten quarts of milk, nearly.

The cattle at present met with, are a mixture of the breeds of different countries, the number of calves reared falling much short of the wants of the country: The principal importations are from Ireland: sometimes these prove good milkers; but are late in coming to maturity, and slow feeders. On the first year of their importation, they are observed not to thrive, and are not so productive of tallow as the primitive Manks.

Individuals of the most valuable breeds have been imported from England, but sufficient attention has not hitherto been paid to rearing. In 1810, a farmer in the Castletown vale, introduced a whole dairy of the short-horned species, containing remarkably handsome specimens of that valuable breed; to which attention will probably continue to be given. Among the recent importations, none seem better adapted to the soil and climate, or perhaps are in themselves more valuable than that bearing in Scotland the name of the Airshire, from the county which produces them. In Airshire, they are called Cuninghame-cattle; and, in the district of Cuninghame itself, they bear the name of Dunlop-cattle, from the family name of the gentleman upon whose estate, and under whose care, the breed originated. They result from a cross of the short-horned cow with an Alderney bull. The colour varies from a dark brown, approaching that of a Devon, to the cream colour of the Alderney, in both cases generally mixed with a considerable proportion of white, though in some individuals no white appears. The head and horns are small; the latter closely resembling the short-horned; the neck thin; little dewlap; round and strait in the barrel, and perfectly free from any disposition to rise in the back-bone; the loin and space between the hips flat and wide. In the leg, rather short than otherwise; bearing a general similarity to each of the breeds from which they spring. The design was probably to produce milkers, which should unite the quantity given by the short-horned, with the quality of the Alderney; it has been successful. About seventy years have elapsed since the cross was made, and the breed is said to be daily rising in estimation. Attentive breeders select the darkest browns with little white, these being found more hardy than the cream-coloured, or those with

much white, though it is admitted that the milk of the latter is richer. In favorable pastures, individual cows, milked thrice in the twenty-four hours, have given twenty-four quarts. Though the cows introduced into the island have been selected with considerable attention, and disregard to expense, by a gentleman of the family to whom the agricultural world is indebted for the existence of the breed, yet they have not hitherto evinced that superiority in milk, which, it is probable, when habituated to the soil and climate, they may attain. All Mr. Dunlop's cows, seventeen in number, are soiled; having their liberty about half an hour in the morning, and the same space of time in the afternoon, if fair, to range a pasture-field contiguous to their house. By soiling, they keep in higher condition, and hold their milk longer, than when pastured; and it is probable that the average of milk through the whole year will be considerably augmented, while the dung much more than compensates the labor of cutting and carrying the grass to them. These cows average, for the summer months, twelve quarts and a half of milk, and one pound of butter, each per day; which is about two-thirds of the quantity which the same average gives in the best pastures in Airshire. The muck produced by soiling them is estimated at thirty single-horse cartloads, or about thirteen ton and a half on each cow. Mr. Dunlop had once a crop of ray and clover, which maintained four milch cows per acre, from the 17th of May to the 31st of October. But this crop was of un, common quality; and he deems  $2\frac{1}{2}$  cows to the acre, for the same period of time, a fair average. He also estimates that the same quantity of grass will maintain five cows soiled, which would carry but three when grazed. As to the disposition to fatten, of the Dunlop breed, sufficient experiments are wanting. In the

district of Cuningham, all the male calves, except those kept for bulls, are sold to the butcher; and the cows, in consequence of the great demand for them all over Scotland, are seldom fattened till old. The opinion, however, is there entertained, that they are kindly feeders. Mr. Dunlop is now rearing a number of oxen of the breed, intended both for draft and the shambles.

Many cottagers and persons of the lower ranks, who can purchase food and find winter stall-room for a cow, keep one for their domestic supply of milk. Her winter food is the straw of barley and oats, with a little hay, and, in some instances, a few potatoes; more rarely, turnips. To increase the quantity of the milk, chaff, on which boiling water has been poured, is given, in tubs, to the cow. During fine weather, she is permitted to go out for a few hours; but grass for the winter-feed of cattle is seldom, if ever, reserved. Young stock, indeed, remain abroad, with the occasional assistance of sheaf-oats in the morning and at night, 'till frost and snow make their appearance. On the 12th of May it is usual to turn out cattle, and to take them in again on the 12th of November, housing cattle being the universal custom, except for young stock. Cattle from six to eight score per quarter, are estimated to leave from 5*l.* to 7*l.* for four months winter fattening. Remarkable thrivers, and heavier beasts, kept for a longer space of time, of course yield larger returns.

Though the labour of oxen seems well calculated for rough stony land, their pace being slower, and they themselves more steady and obedient than horses, yet few ox-teams are kept. In the low-lands, the horse is preferred on account of its superior quickness, and being better fitted for road labour.

From half an acre to three quarters is thought a good day's work for a team of four small oxen; and from

three quarters of an acre to an acre, for a horse-team of two, three, or four, according to their strength; the small holders frequently joining to make up a team. The ox, never going on the road, is not shod.

The milk-maid here proceeds to her work with two vessels; when the quantity of milk given down by the cow begins to diminish, the smaller vessel is presented; the last drawn milk, to which is given the name of strippings, is preserved apart, and poured at once into the cream-vessel. The quality of the butter made in the mountainous part of the island is excellently good and high flavoured. The butter-milk is also deemed a grateful beverage, and wholly consumed in the family. The cheese-press is always small; and sufficient attention has not yet been given to this manufacture.

At different times attempts have been made, and successively abandoned, by farmers in the neighbourhood of the principal towns, to send there a regular daily supply of milk. The demand, it was said, was irregular, in consequence, in some degree, of the supply of milk occasionally furnished by trades-people keeping cows, and parting with the milk beyond their own consumption to their neighbours. It is not improbable that the price fixed on the commodity by the farmer, was found by the consumer to be beyond the proportion paid for other provisions. In the summer 1811, the price paid for new milk, in Douglas, was 3*d.* for the wine quart; 2*d.* for skimmed milk; and 1*s.* per pound for fresh butter. At the same time, on the coast of Cumberland, an equal measure of new milk, unadulterated, and of excellent quality, sold at 2*d.*

For the sake of the poor, it is always to be wished that an opportunity should be given them of purchasing this valuable addition to their provisions. It is indispensable for the health of their children; and the greater

the consumption of it by themselves, the more is economized in fermented liquors.

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## SECTION II.—SHEEP.

THE Isle of Man has also an indigenous breed of sheep, little and hardy, but of mean appearance, with high backs and narrow ribs, slow feeders, and long in coming to maturity. The ewes are sometimes polled, sometimes horned; the rams always horned. Their general colour is white; but many are grey, some black, and a few of a peculiar colour, approaching to that of an unblanched bitter almond, which in the language of the country is termed *laughton*. In the whole breed, a general distinctive mark is said to appear in a laughton-coloured patch in the back of the neck, which in the sheep of other colours disappears as the wool grows. Parents of the ordinary colours occasionally produce laughton lambs; and vice versa. Another peculiarity attaches to the breed in the conformation of the tail, which has some resemblance to that of a goat, thick at the root, and tapering to the extremity. The lamb is a remarkably sinewy active animal; playful like a fawn, and graceful in his movements. This breed appears to have been once widely dispersed. A cargo of Iceland sheep, which a gentleman\* resident in the Isle of Man had an opportunity of examining, resembled the Manks precisely, and in every point;

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\* John Wade, Esq. of Port y' Shee; to whose kindness the Reporter is indebted for the principal part of his information respecting Manks sheep.

having amongst them a laughton individual. In St. Kilda there appear to be sheep of that color.\*

In the Shetland Isles they appear of the same parentage; and they so nearly agree with No. 13, in Culley's List, called the *Dun-faced*, as to make it probable that each are derived from the same original. In quality of wool, and in flavour of mutton, they bear strong resemblance to the North Welsh; and in wool to the sheep of Delamere-forest. It is observed that sheep of the laughton colour are more tender and slower feeders than their brethren. But the esteem in which cloth and stockings manufactured of their wool are held by some Manksmen, as a sort of national distinction, leads to the preservation of sheep of this colour. From the influx of foreign breeds, it is however in some danger of being lost. One instance has occurred of the half-breed South-down and Manks retaining its laughton colour with the make of its English parent.† Several

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\* Martin's Voyage to St. Kilda, p. 27. "The sheep generally are speckled; some white; some *phillamort*."

† Among the Norfolk sheep, (a breed now fast diminishing in number, though in two points superior to their more successful competitors, the South-down; namely, in having a greater proportion of kidney-fat, and wool of a better quality for milling,) individuals occasionally appeared of a rusty brown color; but less uniform in hue than the Manks *laughton*. It was observed in the Norfolk breed, that sheep of this color were also of more tender constitutions, and slower feeders. They were called by some shepherds in Suffolk, by the provincial name of *Brent-lambs*. In the Manks language the participle passive plural "Burnt" is expressed by *Loshhyn*. Of this word, possibly, the term, *Laughton*, is a corruption. The color may be thought to resemble that of wool which has been singed. The more infrequent occurrence of Brent lambs in the Norfolk breed, may be accounted for, by the uniform rejection of individuals of this color as breeders, on account of their tender constitutions.

attempts have been made by the introduction of selected animals of the best breeds from England, to improve the fleece, and hasten the maturity of the animal. None can be made for the improvement of the mutton; the flavor of which is admitted to be superior, when the animal has been kept to a proper age, to any of them. Pure Merino rams, those of its fourth cross with the Ryeland, the new Leicester, and South-down, have been severally introduced. The cross of each of these with Manks ewes, promises well. The two latter have well-formed heavy lambs; and in particular the cross between the South-down and Manks is little inferior, in any respect, to the male parent.

The Ryeland Merino\* ram has been put to a lot of Manks ewes, selected by a manufacturer as bearing the finest wool, and their progeny dispersed throughout the island. The result of the experiment, still in progress, promises favorably. The wool, 1811, of a flock of Manks-Merino sold, unwashed, at 4s. per lb.; the blue cloth to be manufactured from it being all bespoke at 11. 10s. per yard. The half-breed Manks-Merino lambs do not, it must be admitted, promise to be good feeders.

The greater part of the native sheep are removed during the summer to the mountains. On the approach of winter, they return to the lower grounds, and are lanketed; often meeting at home with more scanty fare than on the mountains. When the ploughing commences, they are turned by the smaller farmers into the newly ploughed fields, and fare sumptuously on the weeds and their roots, which the sheep dig up with great assiduity. Thirty sheep have been observed to derive their whole sustenance from one single ploughed field

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\* Imported by Mr. Kelly, a clothier.



for two months. The treatment of the improved breeds is more liberal ; but the wretched state of the fences makes the lanket indispensable to all. Strange as it may seem, it is universally asserted that the Manks sheep will not eat either hay or turnips ; but if such be their rule, it must be allowed that they are not often put in the way of temptation to violate it. Though salt is imported duty free, yet it is not given to them, except when affected by a liver complaint, for which it is deemed a remedy, and then administered by force.

In the year 1806, previous to the establishment of a manufacture of cloth from Manks wool for home consumption, enquiries were carefully made, from parish to parish, as to the number of sheep then actually kept ; the result was, that the number did not, in the whole island, exceed 18600.

On small farms, folding is practised. Single sod fences are constructed in the month of May, on a field dedicated to next year's barley ; dividing it into small square partitions. The cattle of the farm, and the sheep, if any summer there, are driven into these successively, and penned up at night. Being dismissed at dawn, they are collected again, and confined an hour or two about noon. In each subdivision they are kept about ten nights. After weaning the lambs, the ewes are sometimes milked in those folds, and small quantities of milk collected, which are converted into curds, as a delicacy eaten with cream, or with cow's milk : sometimes, but at present rarely, manufactured, with a proportion of cow's milk, into a small but excellent cheese. In these folds the cattle and sheep are in this mode retained 'till September. No very injurious effects to either are observed to result from the folding system. It is at present on the decline. The benefit does not compensate the trouble ; and it is found that better corn grows on

that portion of the land where the single sod fences have been erected and thrown down, than on that on which the cattle themselves have been folded.

A Manks fleece is all carding wool. It contains black hairs; and wool of widely different degrees of fineness. The proportion of fine wool in each, varies from one-eighth to one-fourth part. The sheep are not washed before clipping; and the wool delivered in a foul state loses from one-third to a full half in cleaning, the finer wool losing the greatest proportion. It is stated by the manufacturer, that Manks wool, compared with South-down wool of an equal degree of fineness: is softer to the touch, works more smoothly, mills finer, and stretches better. In sheep of the same flock, a striking difference is observable; if part have been fed on good pasture, the remainder on indifferent, the wool of the former grows too deep for the purpose of manufacture, though not materially coarser. Much mischief has been and still is done to the quality of Manks wool by the importation, many years ago, of a Scotch breed called the *Linton*, the wool of which is coarse, and neither fit for combing nor carding. Rams of this breed are still indiscriminately placed on the mountains.

Good and ill are ever found intimately mixed; with the improvement of carcase and wool, the imported breeds have introduced diseases hitherto unknown in a Manks flock. The scab in particular has made great progress. As usually happens, when any malady for the first time attacks any race of animals, men or brutes, whose progenitors and themselves have been wholly unaccustomed to it, at present its virulence is remarkable, and no adequate remedy has hitherto been generally applied. Against the maggots, a solution of allum, poured at an early period into the wounds which they occasion, has been found effectual. The sheep

attacked with foot-rot are walked across hot lime; but sufficient care to keep the foot clean has not been afterwards taken.

Though it would seem that the sheep system is certainly the most advantageous to which the insular farmer can devote his capital; and though his farm would by their means become annually more productive, yet their number in this island is diminishing. The immediate and apparently larger profits from liming, marling, and then taking successive crops of grain, have seduced the farmer to abandon his forefather's sheep; and the imperfect state of the fences has probably confirmed him in that resolution.

Sufficient care is not taken to keep apart the different improved breeds, or to observe the effects of different crosses. Were the attention of two or three individuals, who most meritoriously direct it to these objects, to remit, the benefit already attained would probably be of short duration.

Parliament has permitted the annual exportation of 300 sheep from certain ports in Great Britain to the Isle of Man.

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### SECTION III.—HORSES.

THE island had formerly its peculiar breed also of ponies, fine boned, sure footed; blacks, greys, and bays: from neglect this breed also has become nearly extinct. Still less care than with regard to horned cattle and sheep, has been taken to replace the indigenous breed by the introduction of good draft-horses. In the uplands a small breed is yet to be found, kept at slender expense, rarely housed in winter. When wanted, they are fetched home in the morning, and after a feed of sheaf-oats or

hay, worked all day, and in the evening, after another feed, dismissed again to the pasture. The animal thus treated must be unequal to the spring-ploughing; but from the cessation of work in summer, gradually recovers. Since the complete establishment of two-horse ploughs, it has become still more necessary that the husbandry-horses should possess strength. Those now in use in the low-lands are partly bred in the northern district of the island, where the luxuriant pasture makes them bony and strong, or they are imported from the north of Ireland; the former having, in general, the preference. The amount of duties on the British side of the channel, with the custom-house charges, is so heavy, as to preclude the supply of ordinary horses from that quarter. Some good stallions have indeed been imported, from which considerable improvement has been effected. In the low-land farms, horses are taken from grass before the weather breaks in autumn, and fed with from half a peck to a peck of oats in the day. Chaff in horse-food is not in ordinary use; sometimes cut straw economizes their hay, and for heavy work is thought better than hay alone. The winter-keep of a horse is now estimated at 18*l.* or 20*l.*; his summer-grass at 6*l.* This animal is not here subject to any peculiar maladies. The wind of horses is often affected in consequence, probably, of their feed being principally ray-grass-hay, which induces them to drink greedily. When too long stabled, the grease is also frequent.

When hard pressed for food in the winter and spring months, horses in rough pastures are said to have found out the means of procuring food from furze. They attack the growing bush with their fore-feet, and, with the aid of their shoes are enabled to pound it till it can be safely masticated. In North Wales, and in Scotland, horses resort to the same practice.

Shoes cost 3s. per set for large horses; less for the smaller: this work is ill executed.

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#### SECTION IV.—ASSES.

ASSES and mules are here never employed in husbandry, and are extremely rare. It is admitted that the latter are strong and active; but when pastured with horses they usually disagree.

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#### SECTION V.—HOGS.

THE Isle of Man had also its peculiar breed of pigs, now totally extinct. In summer they ran wild in the mountains; were lank; of a sandy or grey colour, with black spots, and, as tradition reports, partook of the wild-boar flavor. Their number was, in former days, sufficiently great to attract the cupidity of the tithe-owners. Though these animals ranged the mountains, yet the property in them was as clearly ascertained as that in sheep. In the year 1577, a collection of the spiritual laws and customs directs, an account to be taken, at Martinmas, of Purrs, (the provincial name of this breed) of which the tithes were to be received of the husbandman at Easter. From eight, nine, or ten purrs, one was to be taken, provided the husbandman, out of the whole number, might select one or two; if any man had but five purrs, he still might select one, the proctor then to praise (appraise) the rest: and the husbandman to take or give; meaning, perhaps, that he might retain all his hogs, paying the 10th of the whole

value, as affixed by the proctor on the lot; or give up one of them, retaining the best.

It is to be inferred from the period of time fixed for the delivery of the tithe-purr, that the whole were then within the power of the owner: and that therefore the time for sending them again to the mountain did not take place 'till after Easter. None are now sent thither of any description. Various breeds exist in the island. One large species is of a sandy colour, with black spots; an arched back, narrow round the loins; long legs and snout; the ear flapping; probably originating from their neighbours to the west. Another, coal black, short legs, round barrel, and in general well made, which are said to have been brought hither from the Guinea coast. They thrive well, and have a resemblance to the Chinese breed. Many other species, and their several mixtures, are found; every cottager has one or more to consume the small potatoes and offal of the house. When ready to fatten, they are at first fed with potatoes raw or boiled; and, at their finishing, with corn or meal. In winter, the market is abundantly supplied with pork, at 5*d.* or 6*d.* per pound, exposed to sale in quarters, weighing from 30 to 50*lb.* Pigs at six weeks old sell at 9*s.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* each; they are often delivered at that age to cottagers, who return to the breeder a quarter of the hog when slaughtered. A small quantity of hams and bacon is annually exported.

Their styes are confined; but the animal is not here subject to any particular distemper.

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#### SECTION VI.—RABBITS.

IN the large island, south-west of the Isle of Man, is a warren of the common rabbit. Nothing peculiar in

its produce or management occurs to mention. There being no hares on that island, the experiment was made of turning loose a few brace. The rabbits never ceased pursuing these timid strangers, as long as they had life.

Manks hares are remarkably large. Pennant, who had visited the island, notices (British Zoology, 4th edit. vol. i. page 100), that "Hares differ much in size; the smallest are in the isle of Islay; the largest in that of Man; where some have been found to weigh twelve pounds."

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#### SECTION VII.—POULTRY.

THE necessary consequence of numerous cottage farmers, is abundance of poultry and eggs. When carried to market, the former are however very imperfectly fattened. The price of turkeys, which are small, is about 3*s.* 6*d.*; geese, 2*s.* and 2*s.* 6*d.* ducks 1*s.* 6*d.* each; barn-door fowls 1*s.* or 1*s.* 6*d.* per couple. Eggs in September 6*d.* per dozen.

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#### SECTION VIII.—PIGEONS.

ABOUT some gentlemen's residences, dove-cots are seen; and millers also breed a few pigeons. They are not numerous; but sufficiently so for the farmer's interest, in a country where bird-keepers are never employed.

The insular law inflicts a penalty of 20*s.* on shooting pigeons.

## SECTION IX.—BEES.

THE flavor of Man's honey is much esteemed, and bee-hives are not infrequent. In sheltered situations they do well; but the storms of wind to which the island is continually exposed, must interrupt the labors, and often prove destructive to this industrious insect. Bee-hives are sometimes given out to cottagers, on condition to return half the honey, and account for the produce of the succeeding hives, the property in which continues with the original owner.

By the insular law, to steal bee-hives is a capital offence. The price of honey in 1810, was about 1s. per lb. in the comb; 2s. 6d. clarified, per quart.



## CHAP. XV.

### RURAL ECONOMY.

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#### SECTION I.—LABOR.

IN the contract made between the farmer and his laborer, in former days, many peculiarities existed, and some still remain. By the insular statute-book, the authority of a species of rural tribunal is recognized, which is termed "A jury for servants," and which appears to have possessed the power of compelling the service in agriculture, of persons whom they considered as unemployed. The Deemsters, or common-law judges, the coroners, the serjeants, and the moars, or persons employed in collecting the manorial rents, appear also to have been in possession of a privilege, of compelling to enter into their own service, for one year, a certain number of servants of both sexes, by a ceremony called yarding. Both these institutions, particularly the latter, were capable of great abuse; were, in fact, much abused; and have deservedly gone into oblivion, or been abolished.

A large portion of the peasantry, living at present in a considerable degree of independence, a custom has been introduced in the larger farms of securing the service of a regular set of laborers, by assigning annually to each family a cottage, and a few acres of land, without payment of rent, or at a rent less than the value, on a compact that the individuals of that family shall work for their landlord, and receive throughout

the year, wages somewhat lower, than at their ordinary rate. To these laborers, the provincial name is given of "Cottlers." Sometimes for the labor of the family at harvest only, a small quantity of land is assigned without a cottage. For example, a farmer at a distance from a town, gives to a laborer a potatoe butt, and the muck necessary for it; in return for which he gives his labor at harvest, each day's labor being valued as equal to 60 feet in length and 4 feet in width of potatoe-butt, hand labour to the potatoes and setts being found by the cottager.

In case of regular wages being paid, besides the possession of land, sometimes 10*d.* per day are given; sometimes 4*d.* per day and board. The continuance of this custom, notwithstanding the inconveniences so obviously attending it, may, in some degree, be attributed to the season of the herring-fishery clashing with the harvest, and making it indispensable to attach to the farm the necessary laborers. The principal part of field-labor is indeed, at that time, performed by women. By them the corn is almost exclusively cut; the binding being done by men, in the proportion of one man to six or seven women: after cutting, it is immediately bound and stooked; seven women, with one man to bind after them, finish an acre in the day. In this fickle climate, the farmer thinks it imprudent to hazard his crop in the swath a single night.

Since the introduction of threshing-mills, the convenience of laying corn neatly in bands, has given to the sickle a still more decided preference over the scythe, which is here rarely employed in cutting corn. Except on dry well-aired spots, the cutting or binding early in the morning is not practised. The reaper's labour commences about seven or eight; two hours being allowed for dinner: it ceases at six; but if the evening

is favorable, occasionally continues later, without their requiring any other recompense than a little beer. The yearly wages of a farming man-servant, boarding in the house, varies from 12*l.* to 20*l.* per annum. If married, and not living in the house, a good ploughman has sometimes a cottage furnished to him, and provisions; in one instance, these proved, on enquiry, to be two quarts of skimmed milk per day, 17½ lb. of oatmeal by the week; 4 bolls, about 1350 lb. of potatoes; and a ton of coals by the year. Women servants in the house have from 5*l.* to 8*l.* per annum. A good mower receives 3*s.* a day, and an allowance of at least a quart of ale. The weekly wages of an unattached laborer, in the neighborhood of a town, are about 9*s.* in winter, 12*s.* in summer; and 15*s.* at harvest, with an allowance each day of a quart of beer. Near the mountain, about 8*s.* in winter, and 9*s.* in summer, without beer. A woman's wages are from 10*l.* in ordinary times, to 15*l.* 6*d.* per day in harvest. One gentleman, who farms extensively within two miles of Douglas, gives his men regular wages of 10*s.* a week through the whole year, with no allowance of beer. His hours of labour are from six to eleven, and from one to six in summer; from eight to twelve, and from half-past one to night, in winter; but he observes that there is not in the island any other person, who can induce his laborers to commence work constantly at so early an hour in the morning.

The Manks peasantry being much attached to dancing, it is a constant practice on the evening of the day on which the last corn is cut, for the farmer to call in a fiddler or two. Laborers, young and old, then assemble; and often the family and friends of the farmer himself join in the merry dance. The reason of fixing the period of this festivity, which is called the *mellow*, not at harvest-

little, but on the day when the last corn is cut, is probably because the females' share of the labour then ceases, and they disperse. During the dance, a diminutive sheaf, formed of the last cut corn, bound with ribbands, which had been borne in procession from the field by the queen of the mellow, passes from hand to hand among the young women, and in dancing is waved above the head. English country-dances are still unknown to them. Jigs and reels, in which four or five couple join, take their place, the fiddler changing his tune, and often playing one of the few national lively airs, preserved from early times, resembling strongly in character the Irish.

The custom of working by the job has not yet been generally introduced. Reaping and binding is sometimes let by the acre, at about 10s.; sometimes by the stook, at 2d. each; in each case the farmer's own servants making up the stook. This latter operation is carefully performed. On account of the high winds prevalent towards the end of harvest, it is thought dangerous to set up single sheaves.

Drains are usually made by contract: those three feet wide at the surface, three feet deep, diminishing to the width of a foot at bottom, cost 3d. per yard. If four feet at the surface, four feet deep, and of the width of two feet at the bottom, 4½d. per yard. When the stones are immediately laid into the drain, which some persons prefer, the width on the surface is of less importance; but the same prices are paid. This work is generally performed by Irish labourers. Several farmers, natives of the north of Ireland, have of late established themselves in the island, and are remarked for industry and good conduct.

Stone walling is also paid by measurement. Where the quarry is conveniently situated, for a dry wall, five

feet ten inches high, well coped, the charge is from 1s. 5d. to 2s. per yard, for the whole labour of quarrying, drawing the stones; and walling. Where the stones are delivered on the spot by the proprietor, for waller's work only, from 1s. to 1s. 2d. per yard.

It is observed by settlers from other countries, that the characteristic of Manks servants is indolence; but that they are tractable, and readily adopt any new practice. Several of them have become good ploughmen: As mowers, they are more expert than their neighbours in Cumberland; equalling them in quantity; but excelling them in goodness of work.

It is not unpardonable in the Manks legislature, if they have gone astray, with their neighbours in countries more enlightened, in their attempt to settle by law the wages of artizans and laborers. In 1609, the Governor, Council, and Keys, pass an ordinance, by which they fix a ploughman's yearly wages at 13s. 4d. a driver's at 10s. and a horseman's at 8s.\* The wages of most mechanics are fixed at 4d. a day, with board: a blacksmith is limited to 1d. for making a coulter, 2d. for making a sock, and one halfpenny for making and laying the wing of a sock. In case of any farmer contravening these regulations, a penalty is imposed to the amount of wages paid. In 1667, a ploughman's wages were raised to 15s.; a household-fisherman's (an employment now never heard of), fixed at 13s.; and those of a maid servant of ability at 9s. Again, in 1691, alterations and additions to these rates are made; the mechanics are allowed 8d. a day, or 4d. with board. "All common laborers, as gardeners, hedgers, reapers

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\* It must be remarked that all these sums, and the following, are in the Manks currency, which is one-seventh less than sterling.

"of corn, hay-makers, and such like," shall have, with meat and drink, 2*d.* per day; without meat and drink 4*d.* and not above. But a mower doing his work sufficiently, two to an acre, or one to a day-mouth,\* shall receive for his day's work, with sufficient meat and drink, 4*d.* and without meat and drink, 12*d.* and not above; and that to be in the farmer's choice which to give. Why a mower's food should be valued at twice the amount of a mechanic's, and at four times the amount of a common husbandman's, is difficult to conjecture. From Lady-day to Michaelmas, the working hours are fixed from six to six; from Michaelmas to Lady-day, they are to continue from sun-rise to sun-set.

So recently as in 1763, the oppressive practice of yarding servants, which had in the year 1747, been suspended for three years, appears to have been still in existence. The legislature admits that the wages then by law payable to those persons were very insufficient: An augmentation is given; and in their liberality, they enact that a man-servant shall receive in future 40*s.* and a maid-servant 20*s.* for a year's servitude.

About forty year's ago, the daily wages of a husbandman were but 7*d.* or 8*d.* Manks, without any allowance. So recently as in 1794, they were rising from 8*d.* to 1*s.*; and a ploughman's wages are stated by the Report made in that year to the Board, to have risen from three to six guineas, the then price. In the same report (page 15), it is also justly observed, that though the daily wages were at that time nominally lower than

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\* Daymouth, or rather Daymath or Daymowth; a provincial term, signifying so much as may be mown by one man within the day; now usually estimated in the island three-fourths of a statute acre.

on the opposite coasts of England, yet that the work done was, from the want of activity and ingenuity, in the laborer, quite as costly. The wages have now risen more nearly to an equality; but whether the activity and ingenuity have risen in the same ratio, appears very doubtful. In the payment of debts, servants' wages have here a priority to all other creditors, except landlords for rent in arrear. The fluctuation in the price of provisions has recently been so great, that it is difficult to state their average. In 1810-11, wheat sold from 36s. to 42s. per boll, weighing 25 lb.; barley at about 30s. per boll of six bushels: potatoe oats at about a guinea for the same measure: potatoes at 8d. per boll, of 16 upheaped pecks, weighing nearly 400 lb.; butter 10d. to 1s. 2d. per pound; skimmed milk cheese 6d. to 6d. per pound. Fat cattle sold at the end of the year at 6d. per pound, including kidney-fat, but ~~saking~~ the offal. In spring and summer, about 7d. Fat sheep sell higher than cattle by about 1d. in the pound. In the price of many of these articles, the laboring poor are not directly interested. Their diet is principally potatoes and salt-herrings. Oat, or barley-meal, cooked in different ways, eaten with milk, constitutes their breakfast and often their supper. Either herrings, or some other fish, fresh or salted, with potatoes, their dinner; and potatoes again, flummery, or meal-pottage with milk, their supper. The potatoes are often of their own growth. From 800 to 1000 herrings are laid in from 4s. to 5s. a hundred, of 124 fish to the hundred. This is deemed a good stock for a family of six persons. Salt is at 1s. 8d. to 2s. per bushel retail: not being charged with any duty in England, on export to the Isle of Man.

The established custom of the peasantry, to lay in, before the winter commences, the provisions for the

coming year, has formerly, in this island, been rather matter of necessity than of choice. In former days, unless their own stores furnished to each family a provision of winter's food, they would have been in danger of not obtaining elsewhere a supply, and of perishing from want.

On the question, whether or not it be for the interest of a workman to lay in beforehand a store of provisions, the authority for the negative is no less than that of Adam Smith himself.\* Were it not temerity to venture an opinion apparently in opposition to one supported by that revered name, it might be observed that he leaves the question undecided, in a case where the workman is in fact enabled, by a surplus of capital beyond that portion which is or can be invested in his instruments of trade and furniture, to lay out a portion in the purchase of provisions: that although the capital so laid out does not yield revenue, yet that it does what is tantamount; it enables the consumer to retain himself, what would otherwise be paid to the retail-trader as profit on the provisions sold from hand to mouth: that it economizes all the time, which would

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\* If a poor workman was obliged to purchase a month's or six months provisions at a time, a great part of the stock which he employs as the capital in the instruments of his trade, or in the furniture of his shop, and which yields him a revenue, he would be forced to place in that part of his stock which is reserved for immediate consumption, and which yields him no revenue. Nothing can be more convenient than for such a person to purchase his subsistence from day to day, or even from hour to hour, as he wants it. He is thereby enabled to employ almost his whole stock as a capital; he is thus enabled to furnish work to a greater value; and the profit, which he makes by it in this way, much more than compensates the additional price, which the profit of the retailer imposes on the goods."—Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, Book II. c. 5.



otherwise be necessarily spent in the obtaining daily supplies : that it must contribute to the ease of mind of the possessor of such stores, that no personal injury happening to himself, no casual dearth, or other accident, can deprive his family of food for several months to come. But, above all, that this habit of storing must be attended with the good effects of teaching the poor, habits of forecast in laying up the sums necessary to effect purchases of provisions beforehand, with discreet economy in their consumption.

Near the ports and creeks, the usual fuel is coal ; generally shipped at Whitehaven, or one of the adjacent ports of Cumberland. At Douglas its price is about 30s. per ton. The quantity contained in a ton should be 48 bushels striked measure ; but is generally but about 42 bushels.

Near the mountain, peat or turf is burnt ; and furze also forms a considerable portion of the fuel of the poor. The latter articles being principally obtained by the cottager's own labor, he does not economize in their consumption ; and it is to be regretted, from the habit of cooking on the bare hearth, without having fixed ranges, coppers, or ovens, and with chimneys, if chimneys they can be called, of enormous width, a great waste takes place in the consumption of fuel.

As no surer test seems likely to arise, of the increasing number and wants of the inhabitants of the Island, than that which is furnished by the steadily progressive increase in the quantity of fuel consumed, a statement is inserted in the Appendix, taken from the insular custom-house books, of the quantities of coal imported for the last thirty years. During the latter period of the term, the great increase is, in no small degree, to be attributed to the increased consumption of coal in lime-burning. See Appendix C.

## CHAP. XVI.

### POLITICAL ECONOMY.

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#### SECTION I.—ROADS.

FROM the great inequality of surface in the Isle of Man, and its being crossed by little angry mountain-streams frequently plunging into deep ravines, the construction of roads has been attended with peculiar difficulties. When once constructed, the great abundance of materials, the absence of waggons, or heavy carriages, facilitate their repairs. No complaint can be made of the roads not being sufficiently numerous; but as well from the defect of funds, as from errors in their due application, the state of the roads is in general but indifferent; and in winter they are said, in many places, to be nearly impassable.

In former days, at the first laying out of roads, when the product of each farm was inconsiderable, and principally consumed at home, few wheel-carriages, if any, had probably been introduced. The roads were, therefore, originally designed for the use of horsemen, who found little inconvenience in crossing a ford, or in ascending a hill in quest of the driest and nearest path. The first wheel-carriage introduced here being the Irish car, which does not require any great breadth of road, it is probable, from the appearance of such ancient roads as remain, that they were next adapted to the passage of an Irish wheel-car only. 'Till 1712, no

regulations on this subject seem to have been effected by the Legislature. Provision was in that year made for the appointment of an overseer in each parish, who is empowered to require all persons possessing lands adjacent to a highway out of repair, to lay out 3*s.* 4*d.* each, in any manner the overseer thinks fit, in its repair. If this sum prove insufficient, then every holder of a quarter-land is enjoined to send a horse, with a car, or creels, and also an able man with an English spade; and every intack or cottage-holder, by himself or a sufficient laborer, to come to the highway, with such tools as they use in their own work. Authority is given to the overseer to dig stone, gravel, and sand for materials, and to widen the road when not of lawful breadth. An insular statute of the year 1753 next directs, that out of the money paid for each public-house licence, the sum of 3*s.* 6*d.* shall be appropriated to the repair of highways; and the sum of 3*s.* 4*d.* payable by the adjacent proprietors under the preceding act, is directed to be laid out at the same time as the parish labor proceeds. Powers are given for cutting roads in new directions, making satisfaction to the owners of lands through which they pass; and a general supervisor of roads for the island is appointed, with powers over the parish-overseers. But the duration of this statute was limited to fourteen years.

The first legislative measure, after the extinction of the Proprietary Government, was a Highway Act, to which the royal assent was given in 1776. The sum payable out of public-house licences, from 3*s.* 6*d.* was raised to 9*s.* 9*d.*; a tax of 6*s.* each was imposed on all sporting dogs, except hounds; of 3*s.* each on hounds and 6*d.* on all other dogs, the whole of which is applied in aid of the highway fund. The proprietors of quarter-lands are directed to send four men, the proprietors of

its holdings in the proportions prescribed by the act, and the occupiers of houses, one man, to the repair of the highways. Persons in possession of wheel-cars or carts, are directed to send them for the same purpose ; one day's labor of a cart with two horses and a driver, standing for the labor of four men ; of a cart or wheel-car, with one horse, and a driver, for two men. This labor is directed to be performed in rotation, so as not to exceed three turns in one year. Defaulters incur a penalty of but 1s. for not sending a man ; and of 2s. 6d. for not sending a cart or car, and horses ; with a driver.

The Governor, Council, and Keys, are authorized to nominate a standing committee for putting this act into execution, who are empowered to lay out and make highways, provided that they be not cut through any house, garden, or yard near a dwelling-house ; and that satisfaction be made for lands taken, at the discretion of the committee ; for which purpose they have authority to give the contiguous proprietor the old highways. The committee are also authorized to enter into any lands, and to take materials as they think fit, and also to cut drains, which are to be kept properly cleansed by the proprietor of those lands. New highways are directed to be of the width of eight yards from ditch to ditch. The act contains some other minor regulations as to the passing the accounts of the committee ; the appointment, removal, and remuneration of surveyors ; and confers on the magistrates power of imposing fines on persons found guilty of wilful obstructions and nuisances. Under its powers a committee has been appointed, who act without any recompence, and who have no other guide for their conduct but the defective system which the act itself contains, and no other funds beyond the insufficient means which it supplies. An

account is subjoined of the amount of those funds for the five last years, in Manks currency.\*

The number of quarter-lands, as well in the larger manors as in the baronies, is about 771. The proprietors of each of these may be called on to find the labor of twelve men to the roads in each year. The number of inferior holdings, called cottages and intacks, paying quit-rent to the several lords of manors, is stated to be about 2700. In proportion to the amount of quit-rent paid, the proprietor, or occupier, may be called on for the labor of three, of six, or of twelve men, in each year.

This statutory labor is inadequately performed: the persons on whom it is incumbent, send thither substitutes, whose youth or infirmities prevent their doing a man's work; and what they do perform, from the inattention or want of authority in the surveyors, is

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\* Amount of fund applicable to the repairs of highways in the Isle of Man, from 1806 to 1810, inclusive.

1806.	Ale-house Licences	214	19	9	
	Dog-tax	-	91	13	7
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					306 13 4
1807.	Licences	-	191	11	9
	Dog-tax	-	91	16	4
					<hr/>
					283 8 1
1808.	Licences	-	155	0	6
	Dog-tax	-	93	9	2
					<hr/>
					248 9 8
1809.	Licences	-	227	13	3
	Dog-tax	-	93	17	1
					<hr/>
					321 10 4
1810.	Licences	-	255	18	9
	Dog-tax	-	97	17	6
					<hr/>
					353 16 3

Currency of the Island £. 1513 17 8  
Average £. 302 15 6 $\frac{1}{2}$  per an—

negligently done. A commutation of this labor into money-payments, is much desired by some persons; but as the ancient division into quarter-lands was at its commencement wholly arbitrary, as their value has become in process of time still more unequal, and as the quit-rent paid on these, and on the intacks and cottages, forms no criterion of their value respectively, it does not seem advisable to perpetuate a burden unjust in its basis. In commuting labor for money, extraordinary precaution would be necessary, to avoid evils arising from its depreciation. Of these evils, this act, of only 35 years standing, furnishes a pregnant example. The penalties imposed for not sending men and horses to the highway, now fall short by one-half of the expense of sending them thither; and it is indeed not easy to account for the reasons that the penalty is not more frequently paid, than the duty performed.

The necessity of a revision of the highway laws must sooner or later force itself on the attention of the insular legislature. The burden of maintaining roads in repair, can no where be imposed more justly than on those who receive the greatest benefit by their use. The erection of toll-bars is certainly open to many objections; but as there do not exist in the island any taxes, on wheels, or on horses, as it is in order to afford a passage for these, that roads are constructed, and by their means, repairs become necessary, a moderate impost on one of these objects, or both, would appear the most just and best adapted to the purpose. To replace the statute-labor incumbent on quarter-lands, a tax of 10s. on each wheel of carriages with springs; of 2s. 6d. each, on those without springs; of 5s. each on riding-horses, and 2s. 6d. on those employed in drawing on the road, with authority vested in the commissioners to borrow money on the credit of these taxes, would afford

sufficient funds, if no better can be devised, to put bridges and roads in a fit state for the increased traffic. Were the funds in the disposal of the Committee, more ample, many evils now in existence might be avoided. Within the last twenty years, several new roads have been constructed; but it does not appear that in a single instance, any compensation in money has been made to the persons whose lands these roads have intersected. The cession to these persons of the ground on which the ancient road ran, seldom affords an adequate compensation; and in some cases, the road newly cut does not replace any old road, but is wholly new. The power which the act confers on the commissioners, to break up adjacent lands in search of materials, should also be exercised with more circumspection. In one instance, of a road running near the town of Ramsey, between a creek of the river and a meadow, now letting at 3*l.* 9*s.* per acre, the undertakers of the road appear to have gone into the meadow on their left, and dug up the soil in a channel to the depth of three or four feet, the whole length of the meadow, which they have carried to their road in order to raise it in height, instead of turning to the right, and taking better materials out of the creek, where no mischief would have ensued. In this excavation of theirs, water now stagnates. In these cases also, of searching for and carrying away materials from adjacent fields, no compensation whatever appears to be made to their owners.

It were to be wished too, that the gentlemen who conduct this trust had at their command the means of engaging the permanent assistance of persons conversant in road-making. The direction of the roads might, in many instances, be altered to much advantage, and at a trivial expense. The present mode of management is, in many instances, defective. The roads are seldom

properly barreled. Small arches, running under the road, are frequently wanting. Of these the use is indispensable in a mountainous region, in order to give passage to the water, from the elevated to the lower side of the road.

The stones at present laid on the roads by way of repairing them, are often too large, thrown on irregularly, and never broken; the ruts and hollows are in part filled up with earth instead of stones and gravel; in winter this is converted into mire, and being mixed at intervals with stones, becomes dangerous for horsemen as well as carriages.

The bridges over the small streams are rarely in a finished state, wanting parapets and other repairs. Over some of the streams, bridges have not yet been erected, although, as the water rises occasionally in some of them to a dangerous height, the erection of new bridges would be highly useful. The inhabitants of certain districts frequently apply to the high-road commissioners, for their aid to effect specific objects; and sometimes obtain a sum of money applicable to those purposes, on condition of defraying the remainder of the expense out of their own pockets. No iron railways have yet been laid in the island. Near some of the slate quarries, these might be employed with considerable advantage.

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#### SECTION II.—FAIRS.

IN the early stages of European civilization, when coin was scarce, and the wants of the agricultural portion of the people, were in a great measure supplied by barter; when it was usual also to lay up family stores for the consumption of the winter, the institution of



fairs at fixed epochs was highly useful. With the change of manners, their utility is in a great degree diminished ; and in the Isle of Man, as elsewhere, they are passing into oblivion. Of the forty-five established fairs in the island, there may be six or eight at which dealings take place. At these, cattle and horses are exposed to sale, of which many have been brought over by Irish dealers. Those belonging to the natives, generally change hands in consequence of bargains made at the farm-houses ; but the payments are often stipulated to be made at these meetings.

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#### SECTION III.—MARKETS.

PROVISIONS for the consumption of each town are sold on Saturdays at a certain spot ; but there is not in the island a market of any sort for grain. After harvest, the brewers, millers, and bakers, deal with the farmers at their own houses, and contract for their crops. But it is asserted, that the barley is even at an earlier period often engaged by the brewer. The establishment of weekly grain-markets, in the two principal towns, would meet with considerable support, and much conduce to the interests of the farmer.

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#### SECTION IV. — COIN, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

THE English shilling is here divided into fourteen pence. Small copper coinage, bearing that proportion, for the use of the island, are occasionally made by the authority of the crown. Such halfpence and pence of

the coinage of England and Ireland as enter into the insular circulation, are exchanged, together with their own coinage, at fourteen pence to the shilling. The whole currency of the country becomes, by this means, one-seventh less than sterling. The legal interest of money is here six per cent.

Land is measured by the statute acre : corn by the Winchester bushel : and liquids, by measures bearing the ordinary denominations, and of the ordinary contents. The Manks cloth-yard contains 38 inches, by which linen and woollen manufactured and sold in the country are measured. The corn, though measured by the bushel, is not sold, as usually in England, by the quarter. The denomination here used of "a boll," contains different quantities ; of wheat and peas, four bushels, being exactly equal to the Norfolk comb ; but of barley and oats, it contains six bushels. A firlo is one half of each quantity.\* A peck is here called a

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\* The circumstance of the same denomination being given to a corn-measure, containing different quantities, must be productive of some inconvenience. The reason that barley, oats, and malt are sold by a boll 50 per cent. larger than that by which other grain is sold, may possibly be this ; that the former species of grain were formerly sold upheaped ; wheat, rye, vetches, and beans stricken. By an order of the Insular Council in the year 1582, this is stated to be the then ancient custom. To obviate complaints, and prevent the inconvenience arising from an arbitrary and uncertain measure, as that which is upheaped, in a certain degree, must ever be, the seller might probably agree to deliver six bushel stricken, of grain, which had usually been sold upheaped, instead of four upheaped. From mutual convenience this may have grown into a custom. At least, all species of grain are at present sold stricken : and those alone, which appear to have been by ancient custom sold upheaped, are now sold by the boll of six bushels.

kishon. Wool is sold by the *quart*, containing 7lb. This term is perhaps abbreviated from quarter; being the quarter of a quarter of a cwt.

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#### SECTION V.—MANUFACTURES.

THE importation into Great Britain, from the Isle of Man, is permitted of goods the growth, produce, and manufacture of the island; with the exception of woollen manufactures and of beer, and subject to duties on importation, equal in amount to the internal duties. The only article being the growth and produce of another country, but manufactured in the Isle of Man, which the custom-house regulations of Great Britain suffer to be imported from the Isle of Man, is cloth made of hemp or flax. As the foreign raw material is not at present to be obtained, the islanders cannot avail themselves of that permission. Of hempen cloth, there never was any manufacture; and that of linen is in a declining state. The quantities exported for 30 years are stated in a table in the Appendix.\*

After supplying the home demand, the surplus of native produce must always be insignificant in amount, and cannot furnish the materials for manufactured goods to be exported to any beneficial extent. Until the island is relieved from these restrictions on her external commerce (if that should ever be the good pleasure of the mother country) there is no room for any manufacture to expand.

The manufacture of cotton-yarn, or twist, was once established in the island, and goods of its fabric were

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\* Vide Appendix D. No. I. and II.

admitted to an entry in England, and wrought up at Manchester. After existing twelve years, the officers of the Liverpool custom-house discovered that the importation was illegal. Cotton yarn, spun in Ireland from cotton of foreign growth, is imported into England free of duty; but that from the Isle of Man, not being admissible, the goods were detained, and a period put to the manufacture. The proprietor, after seeking in vain redress, abandoned the island.

On some part of the rocky coast the sea-weed grows, from which is manufactured kelp, but not of the best quality. Unless the weed be of three years growth at least, it is stated that the kelp is of inferior value. The shores of the island being open and much exposed, if the winter be stormy, the weed which has attained maturity is often broken off. That part which has thus been separated and driven on the shore, is found, on burning, to contain less of the alkaline salt by three-fourths than such of the weed as is freshly cut from the rock. If the summer be wet, the quantity of kelp burnt is diminished, and its quality is inferior. From 15 to 25 tons are annually made in the island; and usually consumed at home in soap making.

A manufactory for printing cotton was also once tried and abandoned. About six years ago, machinery was erected for the spinning, dressing, and dyeing the native wool, and for its manufacture into cloth for home consumption. To the farmer this has been found highly beneficial, by creating a steady market for his wool; and the cloth of this fabric is of good quality.

The hemp, flax, and wool, which the lower class of farmers raise, is spun and prepared at home. Dispersed through the country are several small bleach-fields, fulling-mills, dyeing-houses, &c. at which these domestic manufactures are completed.

Bricks are made near Douglas, and in the northern district. Though they are ill burnt, and not subject, of course, to any duty, yet a price of 40s. a thousand is asked for those which the brickmaker calls of the best quality.

Among domestic manufactures, it fortunately happens that the distillation of spirits from grain is not to be reckoned. An act of parliament of 1767, imposes a penalty of 200*l.* besides the forfeiture of the materials, &c. on persons engaged in distillation in the island.

It is said that at one time two or three small stills were introduced from Ireland, and clandestinely wrought; but that there does not at present remain one in the island. Should the attempt be renewed, of taking the people's bread and converting it into poison, it will become every man's duty to detect and punish the offenders. The co-operation of the insular legislature would become necessary, and certainly would not be wanting, to prevent an evil taking root here, which occasions so much mischief and misery to their neighbours.

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#### SECTION VI.—COMMERCE.

THE external commerce of the island was anciently regulated by a singular institution. Four persons were chosen on the part of the country, usually at the Court of Tynwald, or Assembly of the Legislative Body, held annually at Midsummer. After the magistrates had administered to these four persons (who were called the four merchants) an oath to deal truly, and as might appear most for the country's advantage, the duty was confided to them, on the arrival of a stranger's vessel containing commodities of which the island might stand

In need, to negotiate with him for the purchase of the cargo. To whatever bargain the four merchants might make (which usually proceeded in the way of barter) the country was bound. The first occasion on which this institution is recognized by the insular records is in 1523, but is treated as being then well known and established. Minute directions are given as to the "Merchant Stranger his Duty:" These are concluded by an express order, "That no man is to have choice wine but my Lord, the Captain, Bishop, Abbot, or Archdeacon."

The appointment of the four merchants had not gone into disuse in the middle of the 17th century. If faithfully executed, it might have been productive, in those simple days, rather of benefit than of injury. The ignorance of the natives of the English tongue, and inability to cope with the skilful trader exchanging commodities which the natives required, for those of which they had a superfluity, would disqualify them from dealing on terms so advantageous, as persons acquainted with the foreigner's tongue, and with the value of the subjects of reciprocal exchange. There were then in the island probably few retailers of foreign commodities.

Early in the 18th century, the Isle of Man became an entrepôt for commodities on which high duties were paid in Great Britain, to be afterwards smuggled on the neighbouring coasts. In 1711, an act was passed by the Insular Legislature for the prevention of frauds on the British customs. This act expresses the desire of the legislature to prevent such frauds as much as in them lay, in the hope that the British Parliament would, in consideration of that law, and of the poverty of the Isle of Man, give permission that the bestials, or other goods, the growth, produce, and manufacture of the

island, might be imported into Great Britain, duty-free. It enacts that no foreign goods of any description should be shipped for any part of Great Britain or Ireland, unless bonds were entered into, with sureties to be approved of by a British custom-house officer, for payment of the duties on importation : and also inhibits the exportation of the wool produced in the island to any other than a British port.

In 1713, it appears that the boon solicited of Great Britain was withheld ; that the insular product continued burthened with the same heavy duties, whilst their Act of 1711, had faithfully been observed. It was therefore suspended by the Insular Legislature, until the reasonable terms expected on the part of the island were granted. The illicit trade then recommenced, and continued augmenting yearly, 'till the year 1765, when Great Britain re-purchased, at the price of 70,000*l.* the seignory of the island from the Duke and Duchess of Atholl, to whom it had devolved by means of an inter-marriage with an heiress of the Stanley family, the minister afterwards granting an annuity for life to them and the survivor of 2000*l.* on the Irish establishment.

The boon required by the islanders, of the admission into British ports of their produce, has been granted by Great Britain in 1765 ; a traffic most injurious to the interests of both parties was then most happily put down, and is at this moment forbidden by the insular laws, as well as by those of the parent state.

In return for the fuel, the timber, and all other the necessaries and luxuries for which the Isle of Man is tributary to the mother country and her colonies, she has at present but one object of exchange to offer, and that is the herrings caught on her shores. This fishery is of considerable antiquity, and appears, by the Manks records, to have been fully established in the 15th

century. Early in July it generally commences, and terminates about the end of October. It is, at present carried on in boats of from 15 to 40 tons burden, in general manned by a crew of eight men; sometimes of but seven, and rarely by nine and ten men each. The persons to whom the greater number of herring-boats belong, are the yeomanry of the country, and their crews consist of their neighbours of still inferior degree, who bring each their proportion of nets.

On account of the present advance of price in all articles of naval equipment, the expense of constructing a herring-boat, of a medium size, including all the articles with which she is found, cannot be estimated at less than 200*l*. One of the larger size, built last summer, cost 260*l*. Another, the largest, 300*l*. This computation is made without taking into account the copious libations which it is ever customary to make whilst she is upon the stocks, and at her launch, to her future good fortune. This latter article of expenditure has however been known to amount to 15*l*. The price of a pair of nets is about eight guineas. Each man on board has with him a pair, 14 yards deep and 48 yards long. He ought to be provided with a second pair on shore, for use in case of any accident to the first. These nets are sunk in a row by means of stones attached on one side, and supported by buoys, made of inflated dog-skins, on the other. The boat then drifts in expectation of the shoal of herrings striking this wall of nets, in the meshes of which the fish are caught by the gills.

The owner of the boat is entitled to double the share of a man: For instance, if the number of the crew be eight, two shares out of ten, into which their capture is divided, are allotted to the boat; each of the crew takes one share, without any per centage or additional profit being allowed to him who has the command. In the



early part of the season, the fish being better in quality and seldom caught in great quantities, are sent to the neighbouring coasts, or consumed at home in a fresh state. The supply of the country with herrings for salting afterwards takes place, and then the curers of red herrings also commence purchasing.

The art of curing red herrings was introduced from Yarmouth into the island about forty years ago. Cargoes of Manks herrings were formerly annually sent up the Mediterranean, principally to Leghorn; but were not in equal esteem with those cured at Yarmouth, not preserving so well in that climate.

The number of boats employed for two series of years is stated in the Appendix.\*

In years when 20,000 barrels of herrings are cured and exported, the fishery is considered as tolerably good.

The effects of mixing the occupations of husbandman and fisherman cannot but be most injurious to both. The absence of so large a proportion of able-bodied men during the hay-harvest, the season for hoeing, and the corn-harvest, must occasion the loss of many a crop. But the moral effects consequent on this change of vocation are much more injurious to the character of the man, than the pecuniary loss, great as it may be, is to his purse. Every fishery is a species of lottery; and those who enter on it are gamblers; uniting with the risk of capital, considerable personal danger. It

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\* Appendix E. Nos. 1. and 2. The former table is given the authority of the Isle of Man Commissioners Report to Secretary of State, in 1792: The latter, on that of Mr. S the receiver-general of the insular customs: For the interval between the two accounts, Mr. Scott states that the documents are not in his possession.

natural for us to entertain the expectation that our own good fortune will be greater than our neighbour's. Such a pursuit is therefore attractive ; when occasionally successful, its profits are dedicated to those gratifications which men in that condition of life have been accustomed to view as the greatest. Others are incited to follow their example, both in the pursuit, and in the enjoyment of its supposed reward. Whilst engaged in the fishery, much of their time is spent on shore, at a distance from their homes, and with no immediate occupation. The example of their companions, the mischief of vacant hands and vacant minds, here seduce them to the ale-house ; and speedily the habit is acquired. When the judgment is disturbed by frequent ebriety, excesses, at which the perpetrator would have shrunk when sober, are committed, and the character of the man is lost. On the other hand, it is as improbable that the quiet and orderly farmer can become at once a good fisherman. His employment on shore does not furnish him with information or habits likely to be useful at sea. His mind must ever be rivetted on his home. On the dark tempestuous night, at every shock of the wave on his half-decked boat, bitterly he must rue the hour when the dæmon of gain led him into that fearful scene. Self-command must be then lost, even by those few who possess some skill, and who are disposed to obey the ignorant skipper.

The Saturday and Sunday nights are by these devout gentry never profaned by fishing. The pretext is godliness ; but the truth probably is, that there are many inducements to return to the interior besides their prayers. Men to whom fishing alone is a profession, and who are accustomed to subordination, to the duties, and the hazards of a sea-life, would speedily dedicate their attention to that pursuit exclusively.

For the sake of agriculture, it were to be wished that these naturally discordant professions were disunited; and the hands restored to the country of which it is deprived at the most valuable season. The mischiefs which at present ensue from the junction of these professions, by no means terminate with the return of the laborer to his natural employ. His morals being often corrupted, he ceases to be a useful servant; some persons, indeed, have formed a rule never to employ a man who has been engaged in the herring fishery. Altogether it appears a drain on the resources of the island, yearly bringing her more deeply into debt; but as it gradually becomes more unproductive, and as it receives much interruption from the occasional appearance of vessels in the impress service, it is to be hoped that few herring boats will in future be built. The fishery in that case will be either wholly discontinued, or will fall into the hands of those who in the winter and spring carry on the grey fishery, gaining their livelihood constantly on the sea.

The custom-house duties at present levied in the island, were imposed by Parliament in 1767, and increased and modified at subsequent periods. An account of the annual gross amount of the insular revenue received since the extinction of the proprietary government, is stated in the Appendix G.\*

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\* The legislative authority of the island rests, 1st, In the king. 2d, The resident governor, or lieutenant-governor and council, the members of which are nominated by the king, and hold their offices for life; and 3d, The house of keys; who are also elected and nominated for life. When a vacancy takes place, the house itself returns to the resident governor, or lieutenant-governor, the names of two persons, of whom he makes choice of one. This house is always composed of the persons possessing the greatest property and influence in the island.

## SECTION VII.—THE POOR.

THE condition of the Manks peasantry has for many years been gradually improving, particularly since the year 1765, when the proprietary government ceased. The attention of the landowners has, since that period, been more directed to the improvement of their estates; agriculture has been put on a new footing; and within the last fifteen years in particular, wages have been doubled. There is, at this moment, a demand for labor, both of husbandry-servants and of mechanics, beyond the supply; and as provisions are plentiful, and the rent of such houses as are occupied by the humbler classes moderate, population must be advancing with rapidity. The state in which many persons have wished to place the peasantry of England, is that in which a considerable portion of the peasantry of the Isle of Man at this moment lives. They are often proprietors of a cow, sometimes of two; of hogs, and poultry; raise a great part of the food for their families by their own labor, on land which they occupy; and bring up numerous families without any aid. It is but justice to say, that the Manks proprietors of land do not extort unreasonable terms from their cottlers; are guilty of no oppression; and, on the whole, seem kind, charitable, and indulgent masters.

In the towns, the mechanics and their wives having often been brought up, or resided in England, retain English customs; breakfasting on tea; eating butter, cheese, wheaten-bread, and butcher's meat, when their earnings afford it. Their example is said to make some progress, but the diet of the great majority of the working class continues on the primitive footing; oatmeal-

## THE POOR.

age, and barley-bread, milk, potatoes, and herrings. This food appears not to have any unfavourable effect on health. The peasantry, though not ruddy complexioned, are, in general, athletic and strong limbed, particularly in the mountainous and northern division of the island. The yeomanry, with the exception of those who have given themselves up to the odious and too prevalent vice of ebriety, are a well favored people, and their children healthy. In their manners they are civil, without being cringing. They are all of the church of England; unless methodism, to which there are many converts of the middle and lower classes, be considered as a different mode of faith. Each parish has now its methodist chapel; some of these are erected in the vicinity of the churches. A previous disposition to credulity and to superstition in the people certainly existed, and must have made them easy proselytes. In the towns are also a few Catholics, but of these hardly any are natives. There are not, nor ever were, in this island, any religious feuds, or any penal or incapacitating laws to create them, or to impede its inhabitants from worshipping their maker in the mode which their own conscience dictates.

In the towns of the island, box-clubs have existed for several years, and are now spreading in the country-parishes. The extent of these institutions is too limited, and their introduction too modern, to have produced as yet any sensible effects; but it would seem that they are peculiarly adapted to a small district, where no legal provision for the poor is in force, and where the confined state of society will naturally produce constant watchfulness of one member over another, and therefore check abuses in the bud. Instances have already occurred, since the establishment of these clubs, where relief has been administered to deserving individuals

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who would otherwise have been destitute. No ill effects whatever are foreseen as likely to flow from them; their general adoption therefore is earnestly to be wished.

In the Appendix H. are given, 1st. Tables of the population of the island, prepared from returns made by the clergy of the island, at different periods, in obedience to directions from the Governor, or the Bishop. 2d. A table of the baptisms, marriages, and funerals, prepared from similar returns, for two periods of five years. This table is extracted from the Report of the President of the insular Agricultural Society for 1810, in some instances, compared with the original returns. 3d. A list of all the houses in each parish now inhabited. For this valuable document, which has been prepared with care, the Reporter is indebted to the friendly aid of the highway commissioners, who communicated the returns of their surveyors. If in this table there be any error, it is that of omission: but it cannot be considerable. There are in the island few houses, in habitable repair, not more than five in number, which have not inhabitants.

No pains have been spared in seeking information as to the domestic economy, and general condition of the peasantry. With the aid of several well informed persons, the following tables have been formed of the means and the wants of two laborers' families. The first table applies to a family employed in husbandry, and residing within reach of the principal town. The second to another family also employed in husbandry, but living more nearly on the ancient footing, in a part of the island less visited by strangers, where wages and provisions are at a lower rate.

It should be observed, that the majority of able-bodied men, who depend on their labor for support,

and who are not artizans of some description, are employed as fishermen during the herring season: The profits of this employ being precarious, and their expenditure more lavish, the example is taken of families who gain their livelihood exclusively by rural labor.

*Estimate of the income and expenditure of a cottager's family, consisting of the father, mother, and four children, residing in the parish of Kirk Conchan, two miles and a half from Douglas, Isle of Man.*

1811.	INCOME.	L. s. d.
Labor of the man 300 days, at 1s. 8d. per day		25 0 0
Labor of the woman, 80 do. at 10d.	-	3 6 8
20 do. at 1s. 6d.	-	1 10 0
200 do. at 2d.	-	1 13 4
Labor of eldest child, 30 do. at 5d.	-	0 12 6
20 do. at 9d.	-	0 15 0
100 do. at 1d.	-	0 8 4
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		33 5 10
Profits of a pig reared on offal, and of the man's work after six o'clock in the evening	- - -	3 3 0
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		L.36 8 10
	EXPENDITURE.	
Ten bolls of potatoes, at 8s.	- -	4 0 0
Six cwt. oatmeal, at 21s.	- -	6 6 0
Four do. barley, at 17s. 6d.	- -	3 10 0
One maze of herrings, at 30s.	- -	1 10 0
House-rent	- -	1 15 0
Clothing, shoes, &c.	- -	7 0 0
Groceries, soap, candles, and salt	-	1 10 0
		<hr/>
	Carried over	25 11 0

Brought forward	25	11	0
Fuel, with carriage	-	-	2 0 0
Tools	-	-	0 5 0
Three quarts of milk per day, at 1d.	-	-	4 11 3
Butcher's meat and ale	-	-	3 6 8
Subscription to a friendly society	-	-	0 12 0
			<hr/>
	L.36	5	11

N. B. During 200 days, a woman may spin to the amount of 2d. per day, besides attending to her family; if a good spinner, she can earn from 3d. to 4d. and a girl of eleven years old may at least earn 1d.

A garden is highly beneficial to a laborer; employing his evening advantageously, and keeping him out of the ale-house; but a croft is generally a losing concern, being commonly ill-managed, and his cow being half-starved at home, is often trespassing on his neighbours; it also tempts his family to commit petty thefts of straw, hay, and grain for her support, which involves him in trouble, and introduces a laxity of morals.

*Estimate of the income and expenditure of a cottager's family, consisting of the father, mother, and four children, residing in the parish of Kirk German, in the Isle of Man.*

1811.	INCOME.	L.	s.	d.
Labor of the man 150 days, at 1s. 6d. per day		11	5	0
100 days, at 1s. 6d. Manks currency,				
abate one-seventh	-	6	8	7
Labor of the wife, 60 days, at 10d.	-	2	10	0
30 days during harvest, at 1s. 6d.		2	5	0
Labor of the eldest child, 50 days, at 4d.		0	16	8
30 days during harvest, at 9d.	-	1	2	6
				<hr/>
		L.24	7	9



## EXPENDITURE.

Ten bolls of potatoes, at 6s. 8d.	-	3	6	8
Five bolls of oats, at 1l. mulcture, one- twenty-fourth deducted	-	5	0	0
Three bolls of barley, at 1l. 7s. do.	-	4	1	0
Seven hundred herrings, each 124	-	1	15	0
House-rent*	-	1	1	0
Clothing, shoes, &c.†	-	5	10	0
Beer, groceries, soap, candles, salt, &c.	-	1	11	6
Fuel, and paid for carriage	-	1	1	0
Crockery, cooper's ware, tools, and wear and tear of do.	-	1	0	0
				L.24 6 2

No charge is made for milk, butter, butcher's meat, or fish (except herrings) consumed by the family. These are calculated to be paid by profits on pigs and poultry, and by extra work of the woman and eldest child within doors, in spinning, knitting, &c. beyond the wants of the family.

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\* If a small garden or croft be attached to the cottage, the rent is higher; but its produce economises the consumption in grain more than in proportion to the additional rent.

† Linnen is manufactured at home from the flax, for the weaver. Wool is also spun at home. Shoes are not generally worn by women and children. A pair of sandals, made of untanned hide, laced over the foot, called in the Manks language *herranes*, are sometimes made and worn by the men. Price of their shoes 8s. Manks coarse woolen cloth, yard wide, is 3s. 6d. to 4s. per yard. About five yards make a suit of jacket, waistcoat, and breeches. Cost of making such a suit, 7s. It lasts a year.

‡ In June or July peat is raised, and ling (or heath) pulled in the Mountain by the man's own labor. Fern or furze for baking is also cut by himself, on a slight acknowledgment, generally in labor, to the farmer; sometimes gratis.

Besides the parochial schools, several free schools exist in the island, which have formerly been endowed by the charity of individuals. One called "the Academical School," situated at Castletown, supplies the island with candidates for the ministry. Another at Douglas, also affords classical instruction. A school at Peel, formerly founded by the family of Moore, and more recently, another school at Castletown, founded by the family of Taubman, give gratuitous instruction to a limited number of boys, preparing them for a sea-life. At Douglas a school has been founded on the Lancasterian model, and continues to be liberally supported by voluntary annual contribution.

## CHAP. XVII

## OBSTACLES TO IMPROVEMENT.

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THESE are indeed numerous ; and several of them are difficult of removal. Next to the evils resulting from the diversion of farmer's capital and attention, and of his men's labor to the herring-fishery, may be reckoned the defective fences, and faulty system on which the insular law has placed them. Until some reform of this evil is devised, no man's land can be called his own. As long as the boundary fence belongs in moieties to the contiguous proprietors, it signifies little what internal precautions are taken in the subdivision of farms, often long and straggling, as originally laid out, if by your neighbour's suffering his side of the boundary to decay, his half-starved sheep and cattle may cross it by night. It is too often suspected that this is done wilfully and knowingly ; but where your sole security is in a tumbling-down earthen bank, of which only your own side can, without an appeal to a magistrate, be kept in repair by yourself, the risk, uneasiness, and disputes which this system produces, place a constant thorn in the side of the farmer. A singular remedy is indeed provided by the local laws, against wilful or clandestine trespassing. At the instance of the sufferer, a jury of six men is impanelled, who summons before them not only witnesses, but the parties who are owners of the sheep or cattle supposed to have

trespassed. To all these parties an oath is administered, and they are compelled to disclose, under the penalty of being deemed guilty in case of refusal, whether their stock have, to their knowledge, trespassed or not. If found guilty of wilful trespassing, the offender incurs four-fold damages; for every tree injured or destroyed, a fine of 20s. and 10s. extraordinary damages. Prevention is however to be preferred to remedies; some legislative provision might perhaps be attempted to apportion to each farm, and convey to its proprietor, one half of the whole boundary fence, with the obligation on each, to keep in constant repair that given portion of the whole length of the fence, instead of his maintaining an undivided moiety on his own side, as at present. In case of the parties coming to an amicable agreement, then the ratification of commissioners to be appointed by the legislature, to be given without expense to that agreement; but in case of their not agreeing, then the expenses of the examination and decision to be defrayed between them, or by the contumacious party, at the commissioners' discretion, and their decision to be final. Whether this mode, or any other, were adopted, in order to put it into the occupier's power to construct proper fences, and to keep them in repair, still the earth-bank fence, if persisted in alone, must ever prove an inadequate security. Were its summit of sufficient width to support a double row of furze, to be cut down alternately, it would be then less objectionable: In some respects, perhaps, it would even be superior to a thorn-hedge. It would become a fence more speedily. Less harbour would be afforded to the smaller birds, with which the island abounds; and the young shoots of the furze, cut and bruised by means of a stone revolving as in a malt mill, or by a mallet, have

been found to afford no despicable resource as spring provender for cattle.\*

Whether the preference be given to furze fences, to stone walls, or to quick-fences, it were to be wished, for the sake of the agriculture of the island, now making rapid advances, that some effectual means were taken for their improvement. Winter green crops, in particular, will ever remain at hazard whilst dependence is to be placed on your neighbour's diligence in planketing, and keeping up his side of the fence, in order to exclude his own sheep and cattle from your turnips.

The defect of planting in the island originates in a

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\* In Ireland, it appears that "in seasons when hay is dear, fufze are a common resource, and brought even to a sort of trade; the lower orders of country-people sometimes making a livelihood by selling chopped whins to the inhabitants of towns for their cattle, by the bushel." *Observations on the occasional Scarcities and Poor Laws in England*, by W. Richardson, D. D. London, 1811.

The author of this tract has, it seems, adopted the practice of recurring to this species of food, in order to economise hay when dear. Four men and a boy collect in one day, and prepare by pounding for the food of cattle, twenty bushel of furze. With the cost of tools and the carriage, this may be reckoned *10s.* making the expense about *6d.* a bushel.

The weight of a bushel stricken is 14lb. when moderately heaped 18lb.

The patriotic author suggests the expedience of increasing the quantity of potatoes at present ordinarily given to horses and cattle: In years of deficient produce of grain, the potatoes may be retrenched and applied to the food of man, the deficiency of hay and straw necessary, in that case, for the supply of cattle, being in part supplied by prepared furze, which experience proves to be a food both grateful and salutary to animals; and which may, in most places, be procured for the labor of collecting and preparing it.

great degree in its imperfect fencing. In 1667 the then Earl of Derby notices in a letter to his council, in how high a degree it would be conducive not only to the beauty, but to the health and riches of the island if they encouraged planting: but he observes justly that it is impossible to preserve wood where grounds are made common. In the present state of the fencing, that term may still be applied to the greater portion of the island. Were beltings and plantations on the side of eminences made, and these, with hedge-row timber, duly protected and allowed to rise to maturity, the agriculture of the country would receive important benefit on account of the shelter they would afford in winter from the severity of the winds, and in summer to the cattle grazing abroad, which suffer at present materially, under the influence of the mid-day sun.

It is at present too visible that the capital in the hands of the cultivators, whether as owners or occupiers, is insufficient. The state of their farming offices and implements clearly proves the defect. Until the buildings which are to receive the farmer's cattle, and the fences which are to keep out his neighbours, are in a better state, it cannot be admitted even that preparations have been made for proper farming. It is certainly the interest and duty of a prudent landlord to provide for every incoming tenant adequate buildings; complaints are made by some occupiers in the island that the owners either refuse to erect them, or throw the burden on the tenant, who probably has already considerable difficulty in finding means to stock the farm, and has none to spare for permanent erections. In either case it must be taken for granted that a proportionate defalcation is made from the rent on account of the deficiency of these requisite accommodations, or for the

inconvenient advance of capital made by the tenant in their construction, and it is by the landlord principally that the loss is sustained.

The more general dissemination of agricultural knowledge, would certainly be attended with important benefit to this little community. The eagerness too general to receive by means of incessant white crops, immediate profit at the expense of the staple of the land, might then be corrected. In dictating the terms of their leases, proprietors would insert covenants, preventing the recurrence of exhausting crops; and when farming themselves, they would still more dread the consequences of seeking premature gain. Another effect resulting from increased knowledge would be a better acquaintance with the most valuable races of sheep and cattle, and due attention paid to preserving those races pure. At this moment there are found in the island individuals of the breeds of sheep and cattle in the greatest estimation; but the requisite attention to their crosses, or to the preservation of any one breed in its purity, is yet to be paid.

As the agriculture of the island advances, in those parishes in particular in which tithes fall with the heaviest pressure, the injury to agriculture will be more and more felt. By diminishing the number of grain crops, and by not mowing for hay; cropping the land as often as possible with plants not tithable by the insular law, the farmer may evade their payment; but the natural effect of this will be found in the reduction of the quantity of corn raised in the most fertile portion of the island.

## SECTION II.—ENEMIES.

Swarms of small birds, much exceeding in number those to be observed in any part of England, infest the island. The black-birds in particular, are numerous, and a real pest ; destroying the fruit, even the pears on a garden-wall, before they ripen. Perhaps the mild and open winters contribute to the preservation and increase of these birds. So far from taking any measures to thin their numbers, hardly any are taken to preserve the grain, when ripe, from their inroads. As it is not the fashion of the country to employ persons to scare the birds, they light where they please, being of course most destructive to the crops which ripen earliest. Rooks are but few ; being nearly or quite confined to the grounds of one gentleman in the northern part of the island. There are no pheasants ; no nightingales ; landrails are rather numerous : partridge and growse were imported in the course of the preceding century, but have not multiplied considerably. Another importation, for which the island has little obligation to the importer, was that of magpies. These find themselves much at home, increase considerably, and take greater liberties than become visitors. About the same period,\* for the first time, frogs also were introduced, which are now numerous ; but there are no toads nor snakes of any description. Nor have foxes, hedgehogs, or moles, yet found admittance.

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\* History of the Isle of Man, subjoined to the works of Dr. Wilson, Bishop of Man, vol i, p. 478.



## CHAP. XVIII.

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### SECTION I.—AGRICULTURAL SOCIETIES.

IN the county of Cumberland a Society of this description, over which John Christian Curwen, Esq. member for Carlisle, presides, has attained greater distinction, been supported by more numerous subscribers, and has within its sphere probably conferred on agriculture greater benefit than almost any other establishment of a similar nature. It is called the *Workington Agricultural Society*. In an early stage of its progress, some of the Manks gentry, witnessing the good effects resulting from it, expressed a wish to form a Manks Agricultural Society in union with that of Workington. Their wish meeting with the unanimous concurrence of their English neighbours, the first meeting of the patrons of a similar institution in the island, was held in November 1806: Resolutions were then entered into for forming an Agricultural Society for the Isle of Man, as a branch of that of Workington, under the same president indeed, but with vice-presidents, and a committee, managing their own internal affairs. The first premiums were offered for the year 1807; from the President a cup of 10*l.* value for the best managed farm: from the Society itself, for the best general stock of cattle; for the best stallions for agricultural purposes, and for the saddle: for the best crop of clover, or vetches (tares) for soiling: for the best crop of flax for the greatest quantity of land sufficiently marled: for the greatest quantity of land sufficiently

limed; for irrigation; for skill in ploughing; and as rewards for servants of both sexes in husbandry, continuing with unblemished characters for the longest period in their respective services.

These premiums, and others from the President and the Society, have ever since continued to be annually distributed; and have, no doubt, drawn the attention and stimulated the exertions of many others besides the members of the Society, and the competitors for its rewards. In the printed proceedings of the parent society, those of its insular branch are regularly published, and the discernment of the President enables him by annual visits which he pays to the island, to state in his Reports the progress of improvement, and to point out the defects yet to be corrected.

Discussions on agricultural subjects are frequent in the island: and a considerable degree of information is attained, and of zeal evinced, by many individuals.

Should this Society continue to flourish, no doubt can be entertained of the good effects which must result from it. In the Appendix I. are stated the premiums awarded in 1811.

To the proceedings of this Society, and more recently and more strongly to the present imperfect attempt to collect and lay before the Board some information as to the agriculture of the island, an objection has been taken by several of its inhabitants of a nature exactly similar to that which in former stages of the Board's proceedings, appears to have been taken to the Board itself;\* namely, that all their inquiries are but the precursors of taxation;—that the whole is a deep plot laid to introduce the exciseman; and, under pretence of

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\* On the Advantages which have resulted from the Establishment of the Board of Agriculture by the Secretary, 1809, p. 61.

fostering and encouraging the agriculture of the country, to ruin it altogether. Unfortunately, in the Isle of Man, rumours and suspicions have not been confined, as in England, to the illiterate peasant.

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• SECTION II.—LANGUAGE.

THE yeomanry and inferior ranks of people, of every description in the country, with a considerable proportion of those resident in the towns, still continue to converse in their original language. This is a dialect of the same tongue, which is spoken in Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland: By each of the three it is termed Gaelic.

The tongue now spoken in Wales, and in Basse Bretagne, and which was formerly spoken in Cornwall, differs from it essentially. By the latter tribes, their native tongue is called *Cimbric*. It must be admitted, however, that in all these dialects, strong marks of similarity occur, as well in the words themselves, as in the idioms and grammatical construction of each dialect. In particular, the inflexions of their nouns and verbs are effected each by changes of the initial consonant, according to fixed rules. In one respect the Manks approaches more nearly to the *Cimbric* than to its sister-dialects spoken in Ireland and the Highlands. The Bas Breton,\* and the Welsh,† appear, on some occasions, to employ a dual number, as does the Manks,‡ and as did formerly the extinct Cornish.§

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\* Grammaire Celto-Bretone, par L. F. Legonidie, page 411, Paris, 1807.

† Gambold's Welsh Grammar, p. 7.

‡ Manks Grammar by J. Kelly, L.L.D. London 1804, p. 14.

§ Lhuyd's *Archæologia*, p. 242.

A comparative vocabulary of the three dialects of Gaelic, spoken at this day in Ireland, the Highlands, and in the Isle of Man, has been prepared for the press, and may, it is to be hoped, be published. The identity of these three dialects is there manifest ; and its publication will tend to the preservation of the expiring remains of a tongue once spoken by mighty nations, inhabiting a widely extended territory.

No manuscripts in this dialect are in existence ; nor have any ancient fragments of poetry been preserved in the native's memory. Through the care and piety of former prelates presiding over the see of Sodor and Man, the Holy Scriptures, and Common Prayer, with some other devotional books, were many years since translated into the vernacular dialect. Of the Common Prayer Book, several editions have been printed : of the Bible, but one. The British and Foreign Bible-Society have, with great liberality, recently published and sent for distribution to the island, a neatly printed edition, in Manks, of the New Testament. The church-service in the country is alternately, or occasionally, performed in it. These, or any other attempts to preserve it, are altogether in vain. The area on which this dialect of Celtic is spoken is so minute ; it is assailed on so many sides by the settling of strangers, and the return of natives who have forgotten their mother tongue, that it is not likely to endure many generations. Few young persons can now be found who have not at least a smattering of English, and the usual process of corrupting a tongue is evidently and rapidly going forward, by the introduction into Manks of English terms and English idioms ; which bye and bye will usurp its place altogether.

## CONCLUSION.

### MEANS OF IMPROVEMENT.

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AS the amount of capital in the hands of the farmer becomes augmented, and as he advances in skill, many of the evils before adverted to will disappear. Some there are certainly, not wholly within his power. The enclosure and appropriation of the waste, with the concurrence of the lord of the manor and of those interested, can only be effected by the authority of the insular legislature. If the obstacles to this measure could be removed, none perhaps can be suggested more likely to produce gain to the individual, or advantage to the public. The turbaries being preserved, and such portion of the waste as is best adapted to the growth of timber, being planted, drains being cut in proper directions, and sufficient fences erected, the remainder would speedily be converted into valuable summer pasture for sheep. The island is in general well adapted to this useful animal, as is indeed the greater part of its arable land to the culture of turnips, and other green crops, for sheep-feed in winter and spring. The absence of the fly, and of severe frosts, gives the insular farmer peculiar advantages, of which he does not sufficiently avail himself. In the autumn of 1811, there were not in the island 600 acres of turnips: the quantity might be beneficially increased at least twenty-fold. Instead of importing mutton from Whitehaven, to which the

inhabitants of Douglas are at present occasionally compelled for their weekly supply of food, they might speedily become exporters to a considerable amount.

In order to put the fences in effectual repair, recourse must also be had to the legislature. While continuing of their present construction, and on the present system, they will continue a great impediment to the agricultural progress of the island. An alteration might also be made in the existing laws respecting draining, from which good effects might be expected to result. On their present footing, the object sought evidently is but imperfectly attained. Instead of requiring, as is now the case, each proprietor, at his own discretion, as to mode and time, to keep clear the drain passing through his land, without adverting to the peculiar difficulties which each, singly, has to encounter, or to the relative quantities and value of land, compared with the length of drain which each has to keep clear, if the commissioners were invested with authority by law to give orders for deepening and carrying on the drain in due season, by one operation, and under the guidance of an experienced workman ; afterwards dividing the expense annually by an equitable pound-rate among the persons whose lands were relieved, in proportion to the benefit actually received by each, it would seem that the object might be effected in a mode, on the whole less costly, more just, more compendious, and more effectual.

In every country, the farmer's interests are sensibly affected by the good or bad condition of the roads. In this island, heavy loaden carriages not being numerous, and good materials generally accessible, the roads ought to be kept in tolerable repair. But the system of statute-labor, on which the principal reliance is placed, must necessarily be inefficient. It is not to be expected that

labor should be well performed by a crowd of people, huddled together, and working gratuitously for a day, under an ignorant careless surveyor, to whom they pay no attention. The pecuniary funds at the disposal of the high-road commissioners, are also evidently inadequate. To remedy these defects, and construct such roads as the augmented number of the inhabitants, and their increasing wealth and wants require, must be the future care of the legislature.

On the nearest contiguous coast, that of Galloway, the roads were within memory in a state of equal disrepair. The talents and the exertions of one noble-minded young man, Basil, the late Lord Daer, applied to this important object, have effected a change so complete in the direction, the construction, and the state in general of these roads, as must be of lasting benefit to his country.

When circumstance enable the resident insular legislature, as is their earnest wish, to pass laws for effecting this and other necessary internal regulations, no better plans seem likely to be devised than those put in practice by Lord Daer, in a country of strongly similar features: and in no hands can their execution be more safely confided, than in those of one of the road engineers who have benefited by his Lordship's instructions, and aided in putting them in execution.

To allude again to the imperfect state of farm-houses and offices, or to other deficiencies which have been before stated, would be but wearisome repetition. In the period of time elapsed since the completion of the former survey of the insular agriculture under the Board's authority, some improvement certainly has taken place, and some progress been made in the correction of former bad practices. Should the powers of

the Board continue to be exerted, which, for the sake of the public, is much to be wished, and should a survey of the island be taken after an equal interval of time, by a more able inquirer, it is confidently hoped that its state may then exhibit an advance still more marked in improvement.





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## APPENDIX.

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## APPENDIX A.

## No. I.

Extract from the Schedule to "An Act for confirming  
 " certain Articles of Agreement between the Duke of  
 " Atholl, the Earl of Derby, and others." 1811.

Estimated annual value of the impropriated tithes in the Isle of Man.

Parishes.	Amount of tithes now upon lease by the Duke of Atholl.			Estimated value of tithes sold by the Atholl family.		
	L.	s.	d.	L.	s.	d.
Lezayre . . . . .	62	0	0	60	0	0
Maughold . . . . .	31	10	0	10	10	0
Lonnan . . . . .	95	0	0	0	0	0
Conchan . . . . .	32	0	6	0	0	0
Malew . . . . .	92	8	0	115	0	0
Rushen . . . . .	91	0	0	94	15	0
Arbory . . . . .	0	0	0	52	5	0
Santan . . . . .	0	0	0	42	0	0
Michael . . . . .	0	0	0	65	0	0
Marown . . . . .	0	0	0	50	0	0
Eighteen turkeys and eighteen geese paid in kind . . . . .	5	0	0	0	0	0
	408	18	6	489	10	0

	L.	s.	d.
Total of tithes now upon lease . . . . .	408	18	6
Do. do. sold . . . . .	489	10	0
	L.898	8	6

## Deductions.

Bishop's proxy money . . . . .	4	0	0
Sends to Vicars of Malew, Lezayre, and Rushen . . . . .	31	6	8
Manks . . . . .	35	6	8
Exchange . . . . .	5	0	11
British . . . . .	30	5	9

## No. II.

*Extracted from Rymer's Fœdera, Vol. I. p. 342.*

A. D. 1235. Pro Rege Manniæ de custodiendâ cōsterâ Hyberniz Rex dilecto & fideli sup M . . . . filio Geroldi justiciario suo Hyberniz salutem. Sciatis nos dedisse & cartâ nostrâ confirmâsse dilecto & fideli nostro Olavo Regi Manniæ & Insulam pro homagio suo & servitio custodiendi adustum suum cōsteram Maris Angliæ versus Hyberniam & versus prædictam Insulam de Manniâ, & similiter cōsteram Maris Hyberniz versus Angliam & versus prædictam Insulam de Mân ne dampnum prædictis terris nostris Angliæ pro posse suo per Mare in cōsteris illis possit evenire XL Marcas & C Crannocos Frumenti & V Dolios Vini singulis annis percipiendâ in terrâ nostrâ Hyberniz ad terminum Paschæ per Manûs Justiciarîi nostri Hyberniz quamdiu prædictus Rex Manniæ bene & fideliter nobis servierit prædictas cōsteras custodiendo.

Et ideo vobis quod prædictas XL Marcas, & prædictos C Crannocos Frumenti; & prædicta V. Dolia Vini singulis annis ei habere faciatis sicut prædictum est incipientes primum terminum ad Pascha proximum venturum. Anno Regni nostri XX. In cujus, &c. Teste, XI. Jul.

## APPENDIX B.

## No. I.

An Account of the different species of Corn and Grain, Meal and Flour, imported into and exported from the Isle of Man for ten years, ending the 5th of January 1791; distinguishing the quantity of each species in each year.

## IMPORTED.

Year.	Bere and Barley.	Oats.	Wheat Flour.	Oatmeal.	Barley Meal.	Wheat.	Peas.	Beans.	Malt.	Rye.	Rice.
	Quarters.	Quarters.	Cwts. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwts. qrs.	Quarters.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Quarters.	Qrs.	Cwt. qrs. lb.
1781	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	50	1105 3 0	1562 1 0	—	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	89 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—
1782	1604 $\frac{1}{2}$	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	1628 1 0	3039 0 0	—	94 $\frac{3}{4}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	121	—	—
1783	1130 $\frac{3}{4}$	50 $\frac{1}{4}$	1938 1 2	335 0 0	—	241 $\frac{1}{16}$	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—
1784	438 $\frac{1}{2}$	20	2258 2 0	779 3 0	—	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	—	—	—
1785	1233 $\frac{1}{2}$	115 $\frac{1}{2}$	2830 1 0	335 3 0	—	59 $\frac{3}{4}$	—	—	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	11 0 0
1786	1605 $\frac{1}{2}$	235	3413 3 0	2851 1 0	139 0	143 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	27 1 5
1787	1910 $\frac{1}{2}$	140 $\frac{1}{16}$	3946 3 0	2054 3 0	60 3	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	150 $\frac{1}{2}$	16 $\frac{3}{8}$	9 2 1
1788	609 $\frac{1}{2}$	120 $\frac{1}{16}$	3245 1 0	628 2 4	—	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	30 2 8
1789	888 $\frac{1}{2}$	673	1960 1 0	994 0 0	—	184	—	—	—	—	52 2 24
1790	814	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2247 3 0	1484 2 0	—	3	0 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	—	4 1 12

SENHOUSE WILSON, D. Rec. Gen.

## EXPORTED.

Year.	Barley.	Oats.	Wheat Flour.	Oatmeal.	Wheat.	Peas.	Beans.
	Quarters.	Quarters.	Cwt. qrs.	Cwts. qrs.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.
1781	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	42 $\frac{3}{16}$	—	4 2	34	6	—
1782	—	—	—	—	46 $\frac{7}{16}$	—	—
1783	170	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	67	9	—
1784	307 $\frac{1}{2}$	255	6 0	—	29 $\frac{11}{16}$	148	—
1785	180 $\frac{1}{4}$	153	—	—	60	—	—
1786	85 $\frac{1}{4}$	47	—	—	40	—	—
1787	—	60	17 2	17 2	23 $\frac{1}{8}$	—	—
1788	66	150	—	—	1	18	—
1789	993	—	2 1	4 0	469 $\frac{3}{8}$	52 $\frac{5}{8}$	—
1790	829 $\frac{1}{4}$	134 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	2 0	192	45	7

SENHOUSE WILSON, D. Red. GM.

## No. II.

## ISLE OF MAN.

An Account of all Corn and Grain, Meal and Flour, imported into and exported from the Isle of Man, from 5th January, 1791, to 5th January 1811, being a period of twenty years.

## IMPORTED.

Year.	Bere and Barley.	Oats.	Wheat Flour.	Oatmeal.	Wheat.	Pease.
	Quarters.	Quarters.	Cwts.	Cwts.	Quarters.	Quarters.
1791	876 $\frac{3}{4}$	212	3533 $\frac{1}{2}$	649	$\frac{3}{4}$	—
1792	1099	2297	6146 $\frac{1}{2}$	410	48	—
1793	818 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	5751 $\frac{1}{2}$	682	—	—
1794	1200 $\frac{1}{2}$	50	5589	866 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	—
1795	934	86	3330 $\frac{1}{2}$	1595 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	—
1796	275 $\frac{1}{4}$	4	2502	663	129 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1797	327 $\frac{3}{4}$	106 $\frac{3}{4}$	3930	1819	107 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1798	886 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	3946	1841	115	—
1799	1615	97	4971	2576	21	—
1800	913	17 $\frac{1}{4}$	4497	100	139	—
1801	550 $\frac{1}{2}$	30	1760 $\frac{1}{2}$	636	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1802	2541	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	2421	665	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1803	2097 $\frac{3}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	3882 $\frac{3}{4}$	1488	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1804	1855	100	3192	230 $\frac{1}{2}$	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	—
1805	280 $\frac{1}{2}$	68	2736 $\frac{1}{2}$	552 $\frac{1}{2}$	217	—
1806	2435 $\frac{3}{4}$	298	2839 $\frac{1}{2}$	333	718 $\frac{1}{4}$	—
1807	1313 $\frac{1}{4}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	1523 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	114 $\frac{1}{4}$	—
1808	181 $\frac{1}{4}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	2574	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	430 $\frac{1}{8}$	—
1809	870 $\frac{1}{4}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	2917	1019	170	—
1810	1397	320	936	2060	111	—

## EXPORTED.

Year.	Bere and Barley.	Oats.	Wheat Flour.	Oatmeal.	Wheat.	Peas.
	Quarters.	Quarters.	Cwt.	Cwts.	Quarters.	Quarters.
1791	1022 $\frac{1}{4}$	139 $\frac{1}{4}$	—	—	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	16 $\frac{1}{4}$
1792	983 $\frac{1}{4}$	731 $\frac{1}{4}$	—	—	115 $\frac{1}{4}$	70 $\frac{1}{4}$
1793	1442 $\frac{1}{4}$	83 $\frac{1}{4}$	—	—	80 $\frac{1}{2}$	39
1794	1139	— $\frac{1}{4}$	—	—	—	22 $\frac{1}{4}$
1795	486 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	—	— $\frac{1}{2}$	47
1796	1049 $\frac{1}{4}$	58	—	—	— $\frac{1}{4}$	42
1797	1111 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	—	—	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	98 $\frac{1}{4}$
1798	1078	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	—	7	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
1799	119 $\frac{1}{4}$	—	—	—	—	52 $\frac{1}{4}$
1800	—	—	—	—	—	—
1801	—	—	—	—	—	—
1802	—	—	—	—	—	25 $\frac{1}{4}$
1803	—	164 $\frac{1}{4}$	—	—	—	45 $\frac{1}{2}$
1804	152 $\frac{1}{4}$	492 $\frac{1}{4}$	—	—	—	—
1805	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	644 $\frac{1}{4}$	39	—	—	57 $\frac{1}{2}$
1806	—	162 $\frac{1}{4}$	22	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	12 $\frac{1}{4}$
1807	75	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	3	—	25
1808	384 $\frac{1}{4}$	364 $\frac{7}{8}$	—	1	—	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
1809	176	597 $\frac{1}{2}$	—	3	—	54 $\frac{1}{2}$
1810	—	—	—	—	—	—



## APPENDIX C.

An Account of Coals imported into the Isle of Man, from  
5th of January, 1780, to 5th of January 1811, being  
a period of thirty years.

Year.	Chalders.	Year.	Chalders.
1781	2728 $\frac{1}{2}$	1796	5568 $\frac{1}{2}$
1782	2652 $\frac{1}{2}$	1797	5489 $\frac{1}{2}$
1783	2853 $\frac{1}{2}$	1798	5559 $\frac{1}{2}$
1784	3236 $\frac{1}{2}$	1799	5258 $\frac{1}{2}$
1785	3585	1800	5693 $\frac{1}{2}$
1786	3796 $\frac{1}{2}$	1801	6130
1787	3379 $\frac{1}{2}$	1802	6379 $\frac{1}{2}$
1788	3719 $\frac{1}{2}$	1803	7041 $\frac{1}{2}$
1789	3659 $\frac{1}{2}$	1804	7244 $\frac{1}{2}$
1790	4321 $\frac{1}{2}$	1805	6823 $\frac{1}{2}$
1791	4628 $\frac{1}{2}$	1806	6938
1792	4104 $\frac{1}{2}$	1807	7461 $\frac{1}{2}$
1793	6092 $\frac{1}{2}$	1808	8807
1794	4567	1809	9020
1795	5194	1810	9540 $\frac{1}{2}$

## APPENDIX D.

## No. I.

An Account of Linens exported from the Isle of Man to Great Britain for the Bounty, for ten years, ending the 5th January, 1791, distinguishing the year and quantity; as also those exported elsewhere within the same period, distinguishing the year and quantity.

To what place exported.				
Year.	Quantity of Yards.	Great Britain.	Quantity of Yards.	Foreign Parts.
1781	32,201	Great Britain.		
1782	46,262	Ditto.		
1783	49,354	Ditto.	997	Ireland.
1784	65,714	Ditto.		
1785	59,298	Ditto.		
1786	61,078	Ditto.		
1787	60,909	Ditto.	48	Ditto.
1788	44,437	Ditto.	519	Ditto.
1789	37,773½	Ditto.		
1790	49,379	Ditto.		

SENHOUSE WILSON,

*D. Rec. Gen.*

## No. II.

An Account of Linen Cloth exported from the Isle of Man,  
from 5th Jannary, 1791, to 5th January 1811, being a  
period of twenty years.

Year.	Linen Cloth.
	Yards.
1791	36237
1792	54299
1793	54494
1794	50826
1795	57964
1796	61431
1797	24681
1798	47353
1799	58196
1800	61364
1801	60309
1802	52184
1803	58060
1804	44945
1805	63520
1806	77762
1807	90305
1808	68957
1809	47263
1810	24999

## APPENDIX E.

## No. I.

An account of the number of Boats belonging to the Isle of Man, for which the Herring Custom has been paid, for ten years, ending 5th January, 1791; distinguishing the year, and to what Port or Creek belonging, and if licensed; and also of the British and Irish Boats respectively, for which the Herring Custom has been paid within the same period, distinguishing the number and year.

To what Port or Creek belonging.					Total.	Number licensed.	British Boats.	Irish Boats.
Year.	Douglas and its Creeks.	Derbyhaven and Creeks.	Peel and Creeks.	Ramsey and Creeks.				
1781	97	113	52	80	343	Nil.	Nil.	26
1782	92	110	58	80	340	—	—	6
1783	90	96	55	78	319	—	—	Nil.
1784	77	108	47	85	317	—	1	15
1785	84	102	50	77	313	—	1	6
1786	90	96	43	82	311	—	—	2
1787	75	77	34	67	253	—	—	—
1788	62	67	29	74	232	—	—	—
1789	57	65	38	65	225	—	—	—
1790	55	83	37	58	233	—	4	—

SENHOUSE WILSON,

*D. Rec. Gen.*

## No. II.

An Account of the Number of Herring Boats belonging to the Isle of Man, as annually returned by the Coroners, from 5th January, 1799, to 5th January, 1812, being a period of Thirteen Years.

Years.	Number of Boats returned by the Coroners in each Year.
1799	270
1800	279
1801	271
1802	330
1803	332
1804	384
1805	353
1806	335
1807	324
1808	316
1809	308
1810	309
1811	331

## APPENDIX F.

## No. I.

An Account of Bestials exported from the Isle of Man for ten years, ending the 5th January, 1791; distinguishing the year, species, and number, and to what Country.

Year.	Species and Number.						To what Country.
	Horses.	Black Cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Mules.	Goats.	
1781	26	91	6	23	—	—	Great Britain
1782	25	464	2	14	—	—	Ditto
	8	—	—	—	—	—	Ireland
1783	42	581	72	20	—	—	Great Britain
	6	—	—	—	1	—	Ireland
1784	84	458	44	21	—	2	Great Britain
	9	—	—	—	—	—	Ireland
1785	17	90	—	40	—	—	Great Britain
	—	4	—	—	—	—	Ireland
1786	23	116	—	42	—	—	Great Britain
	6	—	—	—	—	—	Ireland
1787	83	895	2	22	1	—	Great Britain
	10	—	—	—	6	—	Ireland
1788	139	707	112	66	—	—	Great Britain
	67	—	—	—	5	—	Ireland
1789	54	321	—	—	—	2	Great Britain
1790	64	296	—	—	—	—	Ditto
	7	—	—	—	—	—	Ireland
		4023	238	248	13	4	

SENHOUSE WILSON,

*D. Rec. Gen.*

## No. II.

An Account of all Bestials exported from the Isle of Man,  
from 5th January, 1791, to 5th January, 1811, being a  
period of Twenty Years.

Years.	Horses or Mares.	Mules.	Asses.	Cows and Oxen.	Pigs.	Sheep.	Goats.
1791	124	—	—	282	61	—	—
1792	131	1	—	843	137	2	2
1793	56	—	1	252	47	—	—
1794	53	—	—	234	4	—	—
1795	73	—	—	427	2	—	—
1796	143	—	—	682	8	1	—
1797	63	—	—	79	52	—	—
1798	39	2	—	548	—	—	—
1799	94	20	—	382	13	—	—
1800	182	—	—	175	—	91	—
1801	123	—	—	382	10	—	—
1802	109	—	—	351	40	—	—
1803	156	16	—	322	16	—	—
1804	148	—	—	16	—	—	—
1805	227	—	—	718	3	—	1
1806	231	—	—	464	34	20	—
1807	176	—	—	75	—	—	—
1808	135	—	—	22	2	103	—
1809	165	—	—	56	—	—	—
1810	153	—	—	184	48	20	—

## No. III.

An Account of Bestials Imported into the Isle of Man, for  
Five Years, ending 5th April, 1812.

Years.	Horses.	Asses.	Cows and Oxen.	Pigs.	Sheep.	Goats.
1807	185	1	93	1	56	—
1808	127	—	157	1	24	—
1809	155	—	306	—	82	—
1810	212	1	728	1	175	—
1811	160	4	521	—	194	1

## APPENDIX G.

An Account of the gross Revenue of the Isle of Man, received by the Officers of the Crown since the cessation of the proprietary Government, on 5th July, 1765, to 5th January, 1812.

Years.	Revenue.	Years.	Revenue.
	L. s. d.		L. s. d.
From the 5th July, 1765, to 5th July, 1766	704 2 1	1786	4114 6 4
To 5th July, 1767, at which time the Manks duties ceased	573 11 5½	1787	4814 0 2
From the 5th July, 1767, to 5th Jan. 1768.	529 16 11½	1788	4093 17 7½
1769	754 1 8½	1789	4581 18 9½
1770	1492 7 2½	1790	6968 18 9½
1771	1624 13 9½	1791	3016 11 0
1772	2141 18 5½	1792	3446 11 10
1773	2801 8 5½	1793	4037 2 11½
1774	2813 5 7½	1794	4338 1 5½
1775	3977 5 7	1795	4101 2 9½
1776	3197 1 9½	1796	6502 4 2
1777	804 0 7	1797	4151 5 10
1778	3257 5 7½	1798	4392 0 8
1779	2987 3 9½	1799	5566 9 7
1780	3144 6 6½	1800	7113 4 2½
1781	3218 3 1½	1801	7417 8 11½
1782	1519 15 3½	1802	12579 11 2
1783	3750 13 9½	1803	11683 6 3½
1784	4059 1 10½	1804	10473 5 3½
1785	5194 19 0½	1805	9949 9 4½
		1806	10916 1 1½
		1807	13765 1 5
		1808	13576 9 0½
		1809	14250 17 1
		1810	17142 7 9½
		1811	14167 1 1½



## APPENDIX H

## No. I.

Transcript of a paper in the hand-writing of the late Right Rev. Dr. Thomas Wilson, Bishop of Sodor and Man; containing an account of the number of souls in the Isle of Man, in the year 1726.

	Souls.
Kirk Michael	643
Ballaugh	806
Jurby	483
Kirk Andreas	967
Kirk Bride	612
Kirk Christ Lezayre	1309
Kirk Maughold	525
Ramsey	460
Kirk Lonnon	547
Kirk Onchan	370
Kirk Braddan	780
Douglas	810
Kirk Marown	—
Kirk St. Anne	376
Kirk Malew	890
Castletown	785
Bally Sally	360
Kirk Arbory	661
Kirk Christ Rushen	813
Kirk Patrick	745
Kirk German	510
Peeletown	475
	14027

This Table was by some accident left incomplete; the population of the parish of Marown not being inserted. In 1757, the population of the island, exclusive of Marown, appears to have been . . . 18486  
 Population of Marown . . . 658

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 19144

Supposing the ratio of increase in the parish of Marown from 1726 to 1757, to have borne its proportion to the rest of the island, the number of inhabitants at the former period in that parish would have been about 499, which would bring up the whole number to 14526.

## No. II.

An Account of the number of inhabitants of the Isle of Man, as returned by the several clergy, in answer to the Bishop of Man's 12th Article of Visitation. 1757.

	Married Couple.	Widowers.	Widows.	Adult single Men.	Adult single Women.	Males under sixteen.	Females under sixteen.	Total Number of Souls.
Kirk Patrick	172	13	20	96	126	167	188	954
Peeletown	160	16	23	93	82	140	126	805
German	172	14	25	75	83	210	174	925
Michael	131	19	26	96	94	168	161	826
Ballaugh	137	8	19	93	100	148	131	773
Jurby	69	11	21	65	70	77	85	467
Andreas	176	24	44	108	124	204	211	1067
Bride	98	10	25	62	78	133	125	629
Lazayre	223	33	65	174	185	296	282	1481
Ramsey	152	15	55	91	79	144	194	882
Maughhold	133	12	20	77	100	156	128	759
Lonon	154	14	30	103	116	151	147	869
Conchan	76	7	17	54	50	76	78	434
Douglas	298	41	83	186	298	302	308	1814
Braddan	213	12	29	101	125	229	199	1121
Marown	106	10	18	54	66	161	137	658
Santan	82	9	11	65	71	95	92	507
Malew	240	26	54	155	166	314	271	1466
Castletown	169	20	62	64	117	171	143	915
Arbory	149	14	36	91	87	137	122	785
Rushen	179	20	30	112	113	196	178	1007
Totals	3289	348	718	2015	2330	3675	3480	19144

## No. III.

An Account of the number of inhabitants of the several parishes, as returned by the Rectors or Vicars, in pursuance of a requisition of his Excellency General Edward Smith, Governor of the Isle of Man, dated 29 January, 1784.

	Married Couple.	Widowers.	Widows.	Adult single Men.	Adult single Women.	Males under sixteen.	Females under sixteen.	Total Number of Souls.
Kirk Patrick	236	21	42	172	181	269	295	1452
Peeletown and German }	379	30	118	212	277	505	571	2474
Michael	160	16	34	119	146	171	174	980
Ballaugh	144	21	38	105	138	148	133	871
Jurby	94	10	30	84	104	105	116	637
Andreas	460	23	43	178	196	245	245	1390
Bride	95	15	27	103	112	104	101	652
Lezayre	259	34	67	174	258	327	302	1680
Ramsey	145	24	62	62	127	160	167	894
Maughold	167	20	43	104	124	243	211	1079
Lonon	210	17	39	127	127	249	240	1219
Conchan	101	10	20	45	48	125	110	560
Douglas	445	116	36	230	311	522	545	2850
Braddan	209	16	37	159	174	232	178	1214
Marown	139	9	32	78	104	184	156	841
Santan	98	11	21	74	84	100	105	589
Malew	304	35	65	192	249	358	354	1861
Castletown	231	15	79	87	166	271	238	1318
Arbory	304	14	38	84	90	199	183	912
Rushen	274	24	50	120	149	280	280	1451
Total 24924								

N. B. This Table is extracted from the Isle of Man Commissioners' Report. In the first column the incumbents of Andreas and Arbory appear to have reckoned the two sexes separately; the other clergymen reckon husband and wife as

one couple. Some slight errors in casting up the several columns have also been committed; not materially affecting the result.

In the parish of Arbory, the number of adult single men is not distinguished in the original return from that of adult single women. The number of both is 174. As the number of females exceeds that of males in every instance but one, in which they are equal, 90 is inserted in this list as the number of females in Arbory parish, and 84 of males.

## No. IV.

*2d Jan. 1792.*

State of the Population; taken by the Clergy and Church-wardens, by Directions of the Bishop of the Diocese.  
Extracted from Agricultural Report, 1810.

Kirk German and town of Peel	2505
Kirk Patrick	2153
Kirk Andreas	1555
Ballagh	1015
Kirk Bride	678
Jurby	713
Kirk Michael	1003
Lezayre	1721
Kirk Marown	842
Kirk Malew and Castletown	3333
Kirk Onchan	690
Kirk Braddan and Douglas	5045
Kirk Lonan	1408
Kirk Maughold and Ramsey	2007
St. Anne	512
Rushen	1590
Kirk Arbory	1143
Total	27913

## No. V.

**Table of Baptisms, Marriages, and Burials in each Church and Chapel of the Isle of Man, from 1800 to 1809, both inclusive ; divided into two periods of Five Years each.**

Name of the Sheading in which situate.	Name of the Parish.	From 1800 to 1804, inclusive.			From 1805, to 1809, inclusive.		
		Baptisms.	Marriages.	Burials.	Baptisms.	Marriages.	Burials.
Glanfaba	Kirk Patrick . .	272	88	99	290	90	148
	Kirk German . .	483	94	149	534	77	178
	Kirk St. Anne . .	89	35	55	96	18	66
Middle	Kirk Marown . .	135	40	55	179	34	86
	Kirk Braddan . .	291	253	511	296	267	778
	St. Matthew's Chapel . .	403	—	2	413	—	2
	St. George's Chapel . .	381	—	88	391	—	131
Rushen	Kirk Christ Rushen . .	304	73	146	297	61	180
	Kirk Arbory . .	227	48	115	231	42	118
	Kirk Malew . .	519	109	270	474	131	281
	St. Mark's Chapel . .	33	—	3	42	—	4
Garf	Kirk Maughold . .	187	53	146	204	58	192
	Ramsey Chapel . .	156	—	15	164	—	15
	Kirk Lonan . .	221	57	89	246	47	97
Michael	Kirk Conchan . .	139	28	102	137	23	145
	Kirk Michael . .	172	53	82	190	75	73
	Ballaugh . .	172	45	92	209	50	—
	Jurby . .	116	33	52	127	20	59
Ayre	Kirk Christ Lezayre . .	254	51	113	312	63	106
	Kirk Andrews . .	284	68	107	270	73	99
	Kirk Bride . .	107	21	57	126	18	67

## No. VI.

Number of inhabited houses, taken in 1811.

Kirk Patrick . . . .	. . .	276
German . . . .	184	} 412
Peeltown . . . .	228	
Michael . . . .	. . .	204
Ballaugh . . . .	. . .	260
Jurby . . . .	. . .	153
Andreas . . . .	. . .	290
Bride . . . .	. . .	149
Lazayre . . . .	. . .	324
Maughold . . . .	110	} 409
Ramsey . . . .	297	
Lonon . . . .	. . .	272
Conchan . . . .	115	} 753
Douglas . . . .	638	
Braddan . . . .	. . .	275
Marown . . . .	. . .	139
Santon . . . .	. . .	90
Malew . . . .	304	} 713
Castletown . . . .	409	
Arbory . . . .	. . .	199
Rushen . . . .	. . .	376
		<hr/> 5294

In the town of Douglas the population is peculiarly dense. Even the smaller houses are often occupied by two or more families; almost all contain residents in addition to the family. Each house may safely be reckoned to contain ten inhabitants.

The three other towns are also crowded, but in a less degree than Douglas. In the villages and dispersed houses in the country, it frequently happens, from the habitual early marriages of the peasantry, that two families reside

under one roof. Taking with these, the three smaller towns, it is thought to each house cannot be assigned, on a general average, less than six inhabitants.

	Houses.	Computed number of inhabitants.
In Douglas . . . . .	638	6380
In the remainder of the Island	4656	27936
Total	5294	34316

## APPENDIX I.

### *Premiums adjudged for the Year 1811 by the Manks Agricultural Society.*

I. Cup, value ten guineas ; presented by J. C. Curwen, Esq. the President, for the best managed farm of not less than 50 acres ; to Mr. Bullock, of the Hague Farm.

II. Five guineas, for best stallion for agricultural purposes ; to Mr. John Fayle's Bay Horse, George.

III. Four guineas, for best bull ; to Mr. Dunlop's bull, of the Dunlop, or Ayrshire breed.

IV. Three guineas, for second best ditto ; to Mr. Coulthard's long-horned bull.

V. Five guineas, for best crop of clover and vetches for soiling ; to Mr. Dunlop.

VI. Two guineas, for second best ditto, to Mr. Gawne of Milltown.

VII. Three guineas, for best and cleanest crop of potatoes to Mr. Coulthard, of Kirk Braddan ; being twenty-eight acres.

VIII. Three guineas, for best and cleanest crop of turnips to Mr. Tweedale of Bemahague ; being 12½ acres.

IX. Five guineas for best and cleanest crop of flax, of not less than an acre, saved for seed (not determined).

## SHEEP.

*First Class. Merino Cross.*

Three guineas for ram with finest wool, to Mr. Wade.  
Two guineas for ditto, with second ditto, to Mr. Bennet.  
One guinea for ditto with third ditto, not awarded.

*Second Class.*

Three guineas for ram, combining finest wool and best carcase, to Mr. Clucas's South Down.  
Two guineas for second best ditto, not awarded.  
One guinea for third ditto, not awarded.

*Third Class.*

Three guineas to Mr. Tweddle's new Leicester.

*Report of the Inspectors.*

Mr. Bullock's farm consists of one hundred acres, having  $22\frac{1}{2}$  acres of wheat, 29 acres of oats,  $5\frac{1}{2}$  acres of turnips,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  acres of carrots,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  acres of cabbages, 12 acres of clover, and 7 acres of pasture.

The wheat-crop may be called a fair average; the oats excellent; the potatoes, turnips, and carrots very clean, and good; the cabbages were nearly gone when the farm was viewed, and may be said to be the only dirty piece of ground upon it; the clover a fair crop.













4. 1

